

long and thick, and carry besides 15 lesser darts. Others use an ample shield, and a large dart called caubahi, but the generality use lances as well as darts, and the great men carry fire arms; for to carry a lance only is the badge of being a person of common or vulgar rank; but to bear a gun upon the shoulder shews dignity, and indicates that the bearer ranks in the first class.

The Madagascarians have little notion of discipline. When an enemy falls he is immediately pierced thro' with darts, by as many as can get near him, and his throat is afterwards cut from ear to ear.

During the time of war the women keep continually dancing (alternately) by day and night, never sleep or eat in their town houses, and however addicted to incontinency, upon no account whatever suffer the company of another man whilst their husbands are exposed to danger, persuaded that they (the husbands) would be killed or wounded, by infidelity in their absence, and believe them to be animated by their continual dancing, and their strength and courage encreased; wherefore they keep up their dancing during the war, by the most superstitious observance of the customs and ceremonies.

When peace is made between contending princes, they bind themselves to amicable behaviour by solemn, and, we may add, horrid imprecations.

The perpetual enmity in which the Madagascarians seem to live with each other arises either from jealousy or theft; but while the former occasions many private animosities, the latter usually terminates in war. Princes and nobles themselves make no manner of conscience of stealing their neighbour's cattle privately, and their neighbours return them the compliment whenever an opportunity offers. In this manner it sometimes only prompts to retaliation; but, at other times, it occasions open hostilities.

During some part of Mr. Drury's captivity in this island he was a slave to a chief of great consequence, who was, however, very fond of stealing his neighbour's cattle privately. As the distress of Mr. Drury, when he first went with his master on one of these expeditions, is rather whimsical, we shall quote it for the entertainment of the reader. "My master (says he) attended by several of his slaves, took me with him one evening into the woods. I observed great preparations made for killing and dressing a bullock, or some such thing; but there being none to kill, and it being then dark, I perceived that they walked with great circumspection, talked softly, and testified all the symptoms of some secret design: upon this the tears stood in my eyes, imagining that they intended to cut me up, and make a meal of me; but my fright was soon over when I saw two slaves hauling along a bullock by a rope fastened to his horns, and my master striking his lance into his throat in order to dispatch him. They immediately cut up his carcase, and dressed the entrails after their own manner. The booty was equally divided, and I observed that each man took care to hide his portion in some private place, from whence he might convey it away by night. As soon as our business was over we parted, some one way and some another, for fear of being taken notice of. I now plainly perceived that we were all this time plundering our neighbours."

After the men return from war, or from a grand hunting match of wild cattle, when they enter their town or village the wives and slaves of the chiefs come creeping from their respective huts, and lick their feet in a most respectful manner; and when this ceremony is performed, the wives and slaves of the other great men, and even the wives of slaves themselves, all act in a similar manner to testify their homage and submission to their respective husbands; but when they return from their thieving-matches, or stealing their neighbour's tame cattle, not the least notice is taken of their having been absent.

As the hunting of wild cattle is one of the principal diversions of these people, we shall give some account of the nature of it in the words of Mr. Drury, as his

relation is both more authentic and more curious than any other. "It was now night (says he) and they were going a beef-hunting: when they set out on purpose to kill the beasts, they always make choice of the darkest nights. They permitted me, on my request, to accompany them, but first ordered me to wash myself, as they themselves did, that we might not smell either of smock or sweat. I would have taken two lances, according to custom, but they obliged me to leave one behind me, lest two together might rattle in my hand. These cattle feed only in the night, and if all these precautions were not taken they could never be surprized, for they are always on their guard, snorting with their noses, and listening after their pursuers. We can hear them roar and bellow a great way off; from which we know where they are, and we are forced always to go round, till they are directly to the windward of us, for otherwise they would soon scent us. As soon as we had got the wind and cattle right a-head, and were within hearing, we walked with all the circumspection imaginable, cropping the top of the grass with our hands as close as possible, to mimick as well as we could the noise a cow makes when she bites it. The moment they heard us, they were all hush, not one of them bellowed or grazed, but seemed to listen with the utmost attention; which, when we perceived, we all stood still likewise without a whisper, whilst three or four, who understood the nature of it best, continued cropping the grass. When the cattle had listened till, as we imagined, they took us for some of their own species, they returned to their grazing, and we walked with caution nearer, still mimicking them as we moved softly along. Decan Murnanzac (one of the chiefs) ordered me to keep behind, lest they should discern my white skin, and be startled; he also gave me his lambe to cover myself, which was a large piece of black silk, so that if I had been near them they could have seen nothing but my face, the grass being above knee deep.

"At length we got amongst them, so that one of our men, as he told me, with some grass in his hand, and under the cover of a bush, took hold of the dug of a cow, and, finding she gave no milk, concluded she was not lean; for which reason he struck his lance instantly into her belly, and drew it out again, making no other motion. The cow, thus wounded, will give a spring, perhaps, and make a noise, as if another had run her horns against her; but this is so common among them, that the herd is not any ways disturbed by it; so that our people struck three or four after this manner, and left them with an intention to come the next morning and trace them by their blood; for it is very dangerous to keep too near them in the night. As soon as they find themselves sorely wounded, they run from their companions, and will attack the first man they see. They are generally found actually dead, or fallen down in some wood, or shelter of bushes, as if they industriously endeavoured to conceal themselves.

"A day or two after this beef-hunting we had an accidental diversion of another kind: our dogs had got the scent of some wild hogs that were got into a thicket and were very busy running round it, but could find no entrance for a considerable time. At length, however, they found the path which the swine had made, and attempted to enter the wood by it: the passage was defended by a large boar, who fought the dogs with great fury, and wounded one of them in a very desperate manner: now what with the dogs on the one hand, and the swine on the other, there was such a yelping, grunting, and howling, that the woods rang with their noise, and one would have imagined all the hogs in the island had met there by consent. We laid down our burdens, and some of us went up to them armed with guns and lances; Decan Murnanzac shot the boar that wounded his dog, whereupon another, in an instant, defended the entrance, and fought so resolutely, that neither the dogs or ourselves could come near the cattle that were within, till we had made a passage behind them with our hatchets and lances; and then fired upon some of the most resolute

resolute who turned upon us. The rest, perceiving themselves attacked behind, fought their way through the dogs, and ran away with the dogs after them; when words cannot describe the noise there was, especially after a number of them were wounded.

With respect to religion, the people of this island have no mosques, temples, or any stated places of worship, and entertain a very imperfect notion of religion in general. They offer sacrifices, and those of the most horrid nature, on particular occasions. Some of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and are said to have some knowledge of events recorded in sacred history, from whence it has been conjectured that they are descended from the Jews; but the greater part are idolators.

The inhabitants of Madagascar practise circumcision, the ceremony of which is performed every third year; at which time they build a hall raised upon wooden pillars, and encompassed with a pallisade of stakes. The great lord of the province kills a bull, and having spilt the blood of it, mixed with honey-wine, round the building, he opens the pallisade; and plants at that opening a banana-tree with leaves and fruit, on which he hangs a girdle, tainted with the blood of the bull; after which that place is looked upon as sacred: no person approaches it but with the utmost respect, and none enter it. The fathers of the children who are to be circumcised fast during the first eight days of the moon of March; and the last day they walk abroad two and two, carrying the children on their shoulders, wrapped up in paans. The young men who are not married follow them, and holding their sabres in their hands, they make threatening motions with them, as though they were going to attack an enemy. After they have walked three times round the donac, or lord's house, they stop before the door, and dividing themselves into two troops, they exercise themselves a long while in feigned attacks, till being tired at last, they are obliged to sit down on mats prepared for them. The next day a priest, or marabut, performs some ludicrous rites. The day appointed being come, the lord, sitting at the entry of the hall, receives, on a table covered with paans or carpets, the offerings of the mothers. Then he enters into the hall, and sits down in the middle of it, and the fathers holding their children on a very smooth stone, the lord performs the operation; which done, the father immediately cuts the throat of a chicken, makes the blood of it drop on the ground, and gives the child back to the mother, who dipping cotton into the blood of the ox that has been killed, and into that of the chicken also, ties it about the wound.

The following is their method of thanksgiving after a successful war. The inhabitants have in all their houses a small portable utensil, which is devoted to religious uses, and is a kind of household altar, which they call the owley. It is made of a peculiar wood, in small pieces, neatly joined, and making almost the form of a half-moon, with the horns downwards, between which are placed two alligators teeth. This is adorned with various kinds of heads, and such a sash fastened to it behind, as a man ties about his waist when he goes to war. They bring two forks, and fix them in the ground, on which is laid a beam, slender at each end, and about six feet long, with two or three pegs in it, and upon this they hang the owley. Behind it is a long pole, to which a bullock is fastened with a cord. They have a pan full of live coals, upon which they throw an aromatic gum, and plant it under the owley. Then they take a small quantity of hair from the tail, chin, and eye-brows of the ox, and put them on the owley. Then the ombias uses some particular gestures with a knife in his hand, and makes a formal incantation, in which the people join. In the next place they throw the ox on the ground, with his legs tied together, and the priest cuts his throat. Thus the ceremony ends, and this is deemed an oblation for having obtained a victory over an enemy.

The political and civil government of Madagascar seems, upon the whole, founded upon principles of rectitude, and thereby tending to salutary purposes. There are obligatory laws on the princes, as well as on individual subjects. Provisional laws, respecting retribution, restitution, criminal conversation, assaults, thefts, &c. are calculated to secure the property, honour, and persons of the people, and would do credit to the most civilized state. Their laws are as follow.

To lie with one of the sovereign's wives is death by the law of the prince, or the prerogative law.

If a man borrows an ox or a cow of his neighbour, and does not return it in a year's time, six calves are looked upon as an equivalent for the ox; and if he neglects payment at that time, those calves are supposed to be three steers, and three heifers, and their increase, which, by a fair computation, arises by their growth and production, is the man's right of whom the beast is borrowed. And if it goes on for ten years, or any longer term, it is computed what three bulls and three cows might produce in that time, and all that produce is due to the creditor.

If a man has criminal conversation with the wife of another man who is his superior, he forfeits thirty head of cattle, besides beads and shovels in abundance; but if the men are of equal degree, then the fine is only 20 head of cattle.

If any one maliciously assaults another, and breaks a leg or an arm, he is fined fifteen head of cattle, as a forfeit to the party injured.

If any one breaks the head of another, and the aggrieved party has not returned the blow, he receives three beeves by way of damage.

If any one steals another's hive of honey, and is caught, the fine is three iron shovels; for it is to be observed, that iron shovels, hoes, &c. are a kind of small money with these people; for here is no trade but by barter, or the exchange of one commodity for another, therefore they are very exact in proportioning the value of different articles.

If one man's cattle break into another's plantation the owner, for every beast found there, must give an iron shovel.

If two men quarrel, and one happens to curse the other's father or mother, whether they be living or dead and his antagonist has so much command of himself as to refrain from cursing the other's father or mother he recovers two beeves as a compensation.

If any one is found guilty of stealing Guinea corn callavancas, potatoes, or the like, out of any of the plantations, he forfeits a cow and a calf to the owner or more, if the damage done is supposed to require greater forfeit.

HISTORY OF MADAGASCAR.

THERE are no accounts of this country to be depended on till the year 1642, when a French officer obtained permission from Cardinal Richieu, nine years, exclusive of all others, to send ships and forces to Madagascar, and the neighbouring islands order to establish a colony, plantation, and commerce. This gentleman erected a society for this purpose, under the name of a French East India Company, and a grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years more privilege, or, in other words, extended to the year 1661. In the interim, that is immediately subsequent to the making out of the grant in 1642, the ship was sent under the command of Captain Coc who was going to load ebony at Madagascar, on account of himself and some private merchants; he had orders to take with him two governors, whose names were Pronis and Fonquenbourg, and two other Frenchmen; these being commanded to remain there, till the arrival of a ship from France which was to sail in November.

Coquet got to Madagascar in September, having in his way, anchored at the Isle of Bourbon, where

took possession of in the name of the king of France; touching afterwards at the Isle of St. Mary he did the same; and arriving at the Bay of Antongil, in Madagascar, he acted in a similar manner. Pronis and Fouquetbourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia, in the province of Mangabel.

The expected ship from France arrived on the first of April, in the ensuing year. It was named the St. Lawrence, and was under the command of Capt. Giles Resimont. This officer brought seventy men with him to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the French would obtain too firm a footing in their country, meditated on opposition; but their intentions were prevented, or at least delayed, by the prudent conduct and timely presents of Pronis. Upon this success, Pronis sent 12 men to penetrate into the province of Matatan, six of whom were cut off by the natives, and the rest compelled to retreat; and soon after Captain Resimont's son, and six sailors, were murdered in the province of Vohitsbang. This opposition was owing to the secret intrigues of the leading men in Anossi, who, from their maritime situation, did not dare to offend the French themselves, but stirred up the people of other provinces, to oppose and murder them upon all occasions.

In 1644 Pronis thought proper to remove from St. Lucia to the Bay of Tholongare, where he began to fortify himself; and having reduced almost the whole province of Anossi by force of arms, he built Fort Dauphin, the situation being excellent, the harbour commodious and finely sheltered, and the entrance very convenient for shipping of any burthen. Behind the fort he erected several other buildings, with large enclosures, which produced various sorts of fruits, kitchen herbs, &c.

In the year 1650 the fort took fire by some unforeseen accident, and was totally destroyed. Soon after, however, it was rebuilt, and strongly garrisoned; the French being always at variance, and frequently at war with the natives.

In the year 1651 the celebrated French governor Flacourt, at the head of 80 Frenchmen, and a great number of armed Negroes, ravaged the country to a considerable distance from the fort, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and destroying all the houses and huts in his way. This occasioned the natives to conceive an extraordinary aversion to the French; and what added to their dislike was, that whenever any prisoners fell into the hands of the French, they looked upon them all in an equal light, and sold them indiscriminately to the then Dutch governor of the Island of Mauritius, not making any distinction between decans or lords, freemen or slaves; or shewing any greater respect to their ladies, when captives, than to women of a lower rank. The French finding, at length, that the idea of conquering Madagascar was chimerical, and that the danger and expences of maintaining a colony, and keeping up a fortress here, were not recompensed by the profits accruing from the settlement, thought proper at once to abandon the island, and all projects relative to it.

The traditional accounts given by the natives of the attempts made by the French to settle on and subdue Madagascar, being extremely curious, we shall extract them from Drury's narrative of his captivity upon this island.

"This part of the country, to which the French have given the name of Port Dauphin, is called, in the Madagascar language, Antenosa. There came hither, upwards of a century ago, two French ships, but on what account I cannot learn. However, they came to an anchor close under land, in a very good harbour. The captains observing that there were plenty of cattle, and all provisions, and a very good soil, determined that one of them should stay here, and establish a settlement. Hereupon they cast lots who should continue on the island, and the person on whom the lot fell was Captain Mesmerrico.

"This Captain Mesmerrico landed with 200 white men, well armed, and provided with store of ammunition, and other necessities for the building of a fort, which they immediately began. No sooner had the natives observed their intention, but they used their utmost art and industry to prevent them. This created a war, in which the French were the victors; who took, at several times, a great number of prisoners. In this war the king of Antenosa and his brother were killed; and amongst many other children that were made captives, the king's son was one. When the French had suppressed the natives, and completed their fort, the ship set sail for France, and carried this young prince, and several others of distinction, to that kingdom.

"In about a year after this expedition, the natives began to be better reconciled to the French: notwithstanding they were secretly disgusted at the indignity offered to their young prince, and could by no means relish the government and direction of foreigners. However, the French, by their artful and cunning deportment and insinuations, gained so much friendship amongst them, that they married, and lived up and down in several towns, at some distance from each other, and not above five or six in a place. They occasionally assisted the natives in their wars against a king that resided to the northward, whom they defeated, took a great number of slaves, and many cattle. In this manner they lived for some years in great tranquillity, neglecting their fort, and extending themselves all over the whole country of Antenosa; but at last, as their families grew numerous, the natives grew jealous; and recollecting how inhumanly they had treated their prince, and perceiving them thus scattered and dispersed, they thought this a favourable opportunity to free themselves from a foreign yoke. Hereupon they formed a conspiracy to cut off all the white men in one day, and the Wednesday following it was put into execution, not leaving a white man alive in Antenosa.

"Soon after a French ship came there as usual. The maurominters, or slaves, who retained a respect for the French, got a canoe, and went off to them, and informed them that their countrymen were all massacred. The captain was startled, and deeply concerned at this melancholy news, but could not revenge their cause, being glad to steer another course, without making the least attempt to go on shore.

"Having nobody now to interrupt them, they put their government into its original form, and made choice of one for their king, who was the nearest related to the former, there being no other son but him whom the French took captive. Under this new king's direction they lived peaceably and quietly for several years, no French ship ever presuming to come near them; but now and then an English ship paid them a visit; and they traded in a very fair and honest manner with the officers on board.

"Some years afterwards a French ship, homeward bound from India, happened to be in great distress for want of water and provisions, and could not compass the Cape. Port Dauphin lay very commodious for the captain, but he knew that the natives were their implacable enemies, nor was he ignorant of the real occasion, and therefore resolved to make use of the following stratagem. Under a pretence of being sent ambassador from the French king, he went on shore in great pomp, and with proper attendants. The ship lay at anchor as near the shore as possible, in order to be within reach of their guns, in case any acts of hostility should be shewn them. The natives who came down to them, asked if they were English or French? They replied the latter; but they were come by express orders from the French king with some valuable presents, and were inclined to make a treaty of peace. The king they had last chosen, whom I mentioned before, died about a month before their arrival, and no new one was then elected in his stead; but the old queen (mother of the young prince whom the French had so clandestinely conveyed away some years before) being then alive,

gave directions that the ambassador should be conducted to her house. His men carried a great many things, of no great value, amongst them, but such, however, as they knew would be highly agreeable in this country. These were formally presented in the name of the French king, and the queen testified her satisfaction in the reception of them, and by entertaining the captain in the most elegant manner she could devise. This day passed in compliments, mutual presents, and such other ceremonies as were consistent with their ideas of public grandeur. The next day she sent for the captain, and informed him, that she expected his men, as well as himself, should take the oaths according to the custom of her country.

"The captain having readily agreed to her proposition, the ceremony was performed after the following manner. The holy owley, of which we have already given some account, was brought out, and hung upon a piece of wood laid cross-ways on two forks, all which were cut down on this solemn occasion, as was also a long pole, to which a bullock was fastened. This was provided by the queen, and when killed, they took part of the tail, and some of the hair of the nose and eye-brows, and put them on some live coals that were under the owley: they then took some of the blood, which they sprinkled upon it, and upon the beam whereon it hung: the liver also was roasted, and a piece placed on it: two other pieces were put on two lances, which were stuck in the ground betwixt the queen and the ambassador. The queen swore first to this or the like effect:

"I swear by the great God above, by the four gods of the four quarters of the world, by the spirits of my forefathers, and before this holy owley, that neither I, nor any of my offspring, nor any of my people, who assist at this solemnity, or their issue, shall, or will wittingly, kill any Frenchman, unless he proves the first aggressor: and if we, or any of us, mean any other than the plain and honest truth by this protestation, may this liver, which I now eat, be converted into poison, and destroy me on the spot."

"Having repeated this form of words, she took the piece of liver off the lance, and eat it; and when she had done, the sham ambassador did the same.

"The captain, or quondam ambassador, stayed on shore about three or four days after this solemn contract, and sent on board what provisions his people wanted. A firm friendship being now established between them, they strove who should outvie the other in the arts of courtesey and complaisance. The captain invited the queen to go on board his vessel, and she very readily went, accompanied by several of the chief of her people, who were treated by the captain with great magnificence, and to her entire satisfaction. She returned on shore in the ship's boat, and stood looking about her for some time after she was landed. The Frenchmen, not regarding the presence of the black queen, stripped, and swam about to wash and cool themselves. The queen, observing the whiteness of their skins, indulged her curiosity in looking on them. At length perceiving one man whose skin was much darker than the rest of his companions, as he came towards the shore, and was going to put on his cloaths, she espied a particular mole under his left breast. She went to him immediately, and looking more wishfully on it, would not permit him to put on his shirt, but claimed him as her son, who had been carried away when a child many years before, and had not patience to contain herself, but ran to him (crying for joy that she had found her son) threw her arms about his neck, and almost stifled him with kisses. This surprized all the people, as well blacks as whites, till having recovered herself a little, she turned to them, and told them, this was her son, and shewed them the private mark. They who had known the prince drew near, viewed the mole, and acquiesced with her, that it must be he, and no other. The Frenchmen could not tell what to make of this odd discovery, nor what might be the fatal consequences that might possibly attend it.

"The captain, therefore, taking the man aside, advised him to give as artful answers as he could to what questions they should ask him, for their safety's sake. Now there were several blacks who spoke French, and by their means the Frenchmen as soon understood the queen as they did. She desired they would ask him if he knew the country he was in? He answered, he could remember nothing of it, for he was carried from his native place when a child. She asked him if he knew her? He said he could not pretend to say absolutely that he did, but he thought she bore a great resemblance to somebody he was much used to when young.

"This confirmed them more and more in their opinion. As to his being white skinned, they thought that might easily be from his wearing cloaths during the time he was absent from home. His hair was as black as theirs; so that it was concluded it must be their prince. The old queen was transported with joy at finding her son; and the natives were for choosing him their king directly, he being the next heir. They asked him what was his name? He told them he never remembered that he was called by any other name than that of Samuel: but they gave him what they thought was his original name, compounded with Tuley, which denoted his return, or arrival; so they called him Decan Tuley-Noro, (decan being an universal title of honour, and signifying lord,) and he was also further saluted immediately with the title of Panazker, that is, king of Antenosa.

"The captain, and other Frenchmen, were surprized to find the man play his part so dextrously, not perceiving, at first, that he was in earnest, and was as fond of being their king, as they were of electing him, though it was in so heathenish a place. He had here 12,000 fighting men immediately under his command, and a fine, plentiful country to live in at his pleasure.

"The ship's crew sailed away, and left him behind them; but as often as the French had occasion for what this island afforded, they made it a constant practice to put into Port Dauphin, and traffic with him.

"About three years before we were cast away, a French ship happening to be there, some of the men got drunk on shore, and, in a quarrel with some of the natives, told them that king Samuel was not their lawful prince, but that he was still resident in France. This might have proved of very fatal consequence to him, but he took such care to prevent it as no one could justly blame him for: he sent for the man who made this public declaration, and ordered him to be shot to death. He likewise commanded his companions to depart forthwith, and assured them, that if ever they, or any of their countrymen, presumed to come within his territories again, they should feel the weight of his resentment."

Besides Port Dauphin, the Europeans often frequented the Bay of Antongil, which is situated in the 16th deg. of south lat. and extends above 40 miles to the northward, being near 30 miles broad at its entrance. It contains a small island, which is fertile in provisions, has plenty of fresh water, and a good harbour for shipping. The Dutch had formerly a factory here, which they abandoned, as those left to take care of it were almost sure to fall victims to the bloody dispositions of the natives, or the inclemency of the climate.

St. Augustine's Bay is situated just under the tropic of Capricorn, in 26 deg. 30 min. south lat. being on the western coast of Madagascar, and was formerly much resorted to by Europeans.

Mr. Salmon says, "It was once expected that the pirates would have made a settlement in this island, and usurped the dominion of it, having six or seven sail of ships, with which they used to infest the Indian seas, and carry their prizes into a place of security on the north-east part of Madagascar, where they possessed themselves of a harbour of difficult access, and defended from storms by the little island of St. Mary, which lies before it, in 17 deg. south lat.

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“ The court of England, about the year 1700, sent a squadron of four men of war, commanded by Commodore Warren, to drive the pirates from thence; but he finding it impossible to come at them, published a proclamation, in pursuance of his instructions; offering a pardon to all that would come in, except Avery, their leader; but not a man came over to him. The commodore afterwards proceeded to Fort St. George, in the East Indies. This gentleman used his utmost endeavours to meet with the pirates in the seas of India, but to no purpose; and having left one or two of his ships on the shoals near Malacca, he returned with the rest to England. However, his expedition had this good effect, that the pirates durst not stir from Madagascar; and finding they were so narrowly watched, they agreed to divide what they had got, and disperse themselves. Two of them were afterwards taken by the Dutch at Malacca, and being sent to Fort St. George, were brought over to England in the *Howland*, A. D. 1701. What became of Avery himself I could never learn; but it is probable he is dead, or remains concealed in the island of Madagascar.”

Later accounts, however, assert, that Avery dissipated his immense wealth, returned poor to England incog. lived many years privately and poorly, and at length died in great indigence and misery, at Biddeford, in Devonshire, concluding thus a life of wickedness in a death of calamity.

ISLANDS NEAR THE COAST OF MADAGASCAR.

THE Island of St. Mary, or, as the inhabitants of Madagascar call it, Nossi Ibrahim, or the Isle of Abraham, lies in 17 deg. south lat. about two leagues from the shore of Madagascar, and opposite to the mouth of the river Mananghare. It is about 50 miles in length, from north to south, and almost 10 from east to west. It is surrounded by rocks, over which canoes may pass when the sea is high; but at low tide they are scarcely covered with a foot of water, which renders the coast in general dangerous, and only accessible for shipping at particular places. Various beautiful shells, and great quantities of white coral, abound about this island. The whole is intersected and watered by many rivers, rivulets, and running springs, which give fertility to the soil, and beauty to the scene, enriched on every side with plantations of rice, yams, millet, fruit, vegetables, &c. Sugar-canes grow spontaneously, and the tobacco-plant comes to very great perfection. The air is extremely moist; for there is hardly a day in the year but it rains some time within the twenty-four hours; and it often rains a week together without intermission. The cattle are fat and good. Ambergris is found about the eastern shore; and the island abounds with various gums, particularly that excellent one called *tacamahaca*. Since the French were settled on the Island of St. Mary, it became much more populous than before: nor dare the neighbouring inhabitants of Madagascar now set a foot on the island, though they formerly used to carry fire and sword amongst the poor natives, and were a great scourge to them. At present there are ten or twelve villages, and near 1000 inhabitants, who employ themselves chiefly in cultivating rice, yams, peas, beans, &c. They are likewise very fond of a fish called *hourils*, which they catch either by nets or hooks, and eat or sell them, as their necessities require. Their religion is Paganism, intermixed with some particles of Judaism; and they keep on good terms with Christians, though none of them have been known to become proselytes.

To the south of the Island of St. Mary is a small island, separated by a narrow channel, not above three fathom over, so fertile, rich, and abundant, that the inhabitants of the Island of St. Mary send their cattle hither to fatten, and lay out large plantations of rice, corn, roots, and fruits, notwithstanding which they have not thought proper to plant a colony on it.

The Island of Diego Roderiguez is situated in 19 deg. 15 min. south lat. about 22 leagues to the eastward of Madagascar, and is uninhabited.

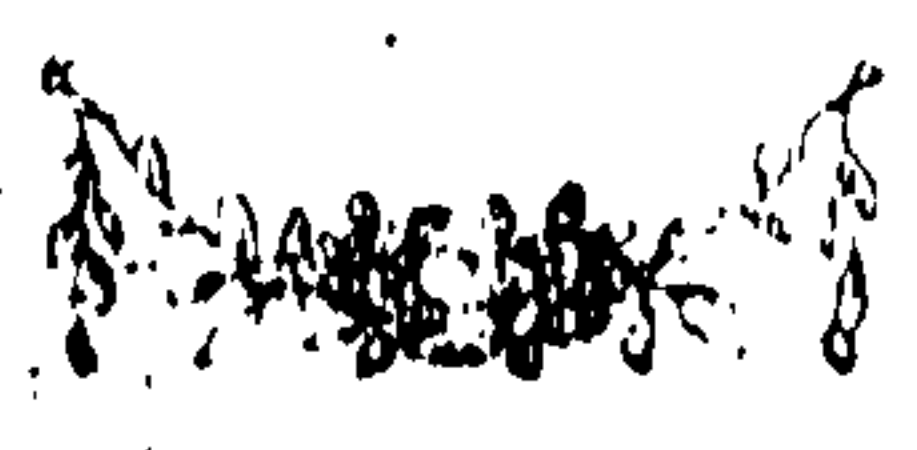
In the 16th deg. of south lat. are situated the islands called by the Portuguese *Ilhas, Primieras*, and other islands called *Angoras*, which are four in number; but these islands contain nothing worthy of attention.

There are several small islands called *Utiques*, opposite to Cape St. Sebastian, on the coast of *Safola*, and under the lat. of 24 deg. 6 min. from the continent, and which stand off St. Sebastian, on the north-west end of Madagascar, east of the *Comoro Islands*. They produce rice, millet, and great abundance of cattle. There is also *ambergris* found on the sea-coast, which the people collect and export to different parts of the continent: but the most valuable product of these islands is a pearl fishery.

The inhabitants are Negroes, and resemble those of Madagascar, both in persons and dress. Their religion is Paganism, with some faint gleams of Judaism; and they are exceeding superstitious, being extremely fond of attending to predictions, though their lives are usually rendered unhappy thereby; and, indeed, how can it be otherwise? for if we believe that some certain good is destined to attend us, we groan under the present burden, and are anxiously miserable for its arrival; while, on the contrary, if we fancy that some evil will assuredly befall us, we feel it poignantly in expectation, and are truly unhappy, in the excruciating idea of what may chance to happen. Then how impious must they be who attempt to pry into futurity, and to search for that which Heaven hath so wisely concealed! And how kind is Providence to hide from us so cautiously, that which, if known, would only render us the slaves of either hope or fear.

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
(All but the page prescrib'd their present state;)
From brutes what men, from men what spirits know,
Or who could suffer being here below?
The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to day;
Had he thy reason would he skip and play?
Pleas'd to the last, he crops the flow'ry food,
And licks the hand just rais'd to shed his blood.
Oh, blindness to the future, kindly given,
That each may fill the circle mark'd by heav'n,
Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
A hero perish, or a sparrow fall;
Atoms or systems into ruin hurl'd;
And now a bubble burst, and now a world.
Hope humbly then, with trembling pinions soar,
Wait the great teacher Death, and God adore.
What future bliss he gives not thee to know,
But gives that hope to be thy blessing now.
Hope springs eternal in the human breast:
Man never is, but always to be blest.
The soul uneasy, and confin'd from home,
Rests and expatiates in a life to come.

There are several other islands near these coasts, but they are all small, many of them uninhabited, and none of them contain any thing in particular that is worthy of description.



ISLANDS NEAR THE COAST OF ZANGUEBAR.

THERE are a number of islands on this coast, but the generality of them are very small and uninhabited. We shall, therefore, only take notice of the most considerable, which are the following.

M O S A M B I Q U E.

IS situated in a gulph, in the 15th deg. of south lat. and about two miles from the coast. Before the island, and next to the shore, are two smaller ones, which seem as if they had been formerly joined with the main land. One of these is called St. George's, and the other St. James's; but they are both small, and without any inhabitants.

Mosambique is very small, being not above a mile and a half long, and three quarters of a mile broad. The land is smooth and even, and the greatest part of it covered with white sand. The air is very sultry and unwholesome. The inhabitants have no other fresh water than what arises from a small spring situated about the center of the island. Though the soil here is very dry and sandy, the gardens, from the assistance of water brought from the above spring, produce oranges, lemons, ananas, and fig trees.

Here are great numbers of black and small cattle, particularly sheep, whose rumps are of an enormous size. They have likewise some hogs; as also a kind of fowl, whose feathers and flesh are black, and when boiled, the water is of the colour of ink, but the flesh of the bird is very delicate and wholesome.

The natives are short of stature, very black, and have curled hair like the wool of a sheep. They are naturally cruel, deceitful, and enemies to strangers; but as they are very timid, the Portuguese, who are masters of the island, keep them under tolerable subjection. The men wear only a small piece of cloth wound round the waist; but the women have a kind of petticoat of coarse cotton cloth, which reaches from the middle to the ankles. They wear round their necks strings of coral, and beads of various colours. In their ears they have brass rings; and on their arms bracelets, made of brass or tin. Some of them are Christians, others Mahometans, and the rest idolaters.

The Portuguese built a town on this island, which is called by the same name. This town is of infinite advantage to them, as their ships not only stop and refresh here in their way to the East Indies, but it also secures their trade with the neighbouring nations, particularly those of Sofala and Monomotapa, from whence they take great quantities of gold. The houses in this town are tolerably well built; and they have a convent and an hospital for the sick, both of which are large and handsome buildings. Here is likewise a fort, which is much larger, and better supplied, than any the Portuguese have on the whole coast of Zanguebar.

M O M B A Z A,

LYING in 4 deg. 5 min. south lat. has a large town situated on a rock, and defended by a strong castle. The houses are built after the Italian manner; and the castle is the usual residence of a Mahometan prince. The Portuguese were once masters of this island, but they were routed from it by the Arabs about the middle of the last century. This island is watered by a river of the same name, which springs from the mountains of Monocinugi, runs from east to west, and then discharges itself into the sea.

The port of Mombaza is very safe and commodious, and is greatly resorted to by the merchants of the coast of Zanguebar, and other places, for the convenience of trade.

THE QUERIMBA ISLANDS

ARE seated along the coast, from Cape del Gada, in 10 deg. to the 12th deg. of south lat. and extend two degrees, or 120 miles, from north to south. The most remarkable, and largest of them, which gives name to the rest, is Querimba, where the Portuguese have a small fort. This island, which is the most populous of them all, contains a few houses, not contiguous together, but scattered up and down, like so many farm-houses. In the middle of the island is a church, where mass is said by a Dominican priest, sent hither by the archbishop of Goa.

The other islands that go under the denomination of Querimba, are Ibo, or Oibo, Matomo, Macoloo, and Malinda; but they are all too insignificant to merit any particular notice, except the first, which is under the direction of a Portuguese governor, who has a large house, with an extensive garden behind it, and the whole is enclosed with a lofty and strong wall. This island, and that of Querimba, have good harbours for shipping, which is not the case with any of the rest, the channels between them being, at low water, not more than three feet deep.

The Querimba Islands are all well watered with springs, and therefore fertile, producing plenty of dates, oranges, citrons, grapes, pot-herbs, &c. They also abound in good pastures, where are fed great herds of large and small cattle. Most of them have likewise great plenty of game; and the sea about them produces a variety of excellent fish. The inhabitants receive wheat, rice, and dried sweetmeats, from Ormus.

These islands were formerly inhabited by Arabs, as appears from the ruins of several houses, which were built with stone, bricks, and mortar. The Portuguese, when they first came here, not only destroyed the houses, under pretence of their being inhabited by Mahometans, but they even carried their cruelty so far as to murder all the people, without sparing either age or sex. It was owing to this cruelty that these islands continued many years uninhabited; till, at length, some Portuguese, from Mombaza, Mosambique, and other parts, came and settled on them. At first each family took possession of an island, where they built a house, provided themselves with fire-arms, and bought slaves, not only to till the ground, but also to defend their persons. They are now inhabited by Portuguese and Blacks; and they are under the protection of the governor of Mosambique, who sends them annually a judge to decide all differences that may happen amongst them.

To the south of Querimba is a cluster of small islands, not inhabited. They are called by the Portuguese, The Islands of the Whipped or Lashed, because the first time they went to examine them, having a pilot whom they had taken from Mosambique, they found that the perfidious wretch endeavoured to entangle them among those islands, in order to shipwreck their fleet, in consequence of which they punished his treachery by severely whipping him with cords, and from thence the islands received their name.

M O N I F L A

LIES in 9 deg. 30 min. south lat. It is very fertile in rice and millet, and has a great variety of fruit-trees, as also prodigious numbers of sugar canes. It contains only a few villages, though it is at least 100 miles in circumference.

ZANJABAR,

ZANJABAR, or ZANZIBAR,

IS situated in 7 deg. 55 min. south lat. and is about eight leagues distant from the continent. It is a very fertile island, and, in particular, produces plenty of rice, millet, and sugar-canes. It has many forests, in which grow very tall lemon trees, whose blossoms perfume the air for a considerable distance. It abounds with springs of excellent water; and must heretofore have been very rich, since a Portuguese, named Ravasco, during two months that he continued on the spot, took from these islanders 20 vessels, laden with several sorts of merchandize. When the Portuguese first began to appear in these parts, the king of this island promised to pay yearly to his Portuguese majesty a certain

quantity of gold, besides 30 sheep, which a Portuguese captain was annually sent to receive. The chief part of the people that now inhabit this island are Mahometans.

There are two other small islands on the coast of Zanguebar. The first of these is called Lamo, and situated between the 1st and 2d deg. of south lat. Here is a small town, which was the residence of the king; and near it is a good harbour for shipping. The king of this island was murdered by the Portuguese in the year 1589.

The other island, which is called Pate, is situated to the north of Lamo, in the 2d deg. of south lat. It has a small town about the center of it, but it does not contain any building that merits particular notice. The inhabitants are all Blacks, and the chief part of them profess the Mahometan religion.

C H A P. XXIV.

THE COMORO ISLANDS.

THE Comoro Islands take their names from Comoro, the largest of them. They are five in number, and the other four are distinguished by the names of Mohilla, Angazeja, Johanna, and Mayotta. They lie opposite the shore of Zanguebar, and north of Madagascar. Comoro, the largest, is not frequented by Europeans, it having no safe harbour, and the natives being averse to commerce with strangers. The reason originated from the cruelties exercised on them by the Portuguese when they first visited these seas; for they not only robbed them of their property, and committed the most dreadful outrages, but also made them captives, and frequently divested them of every earthly enjoyment, by forcing them on board their ships, and then selling them for slaves. It is, therefore, little to be wondered at, that the descendants of these unhappy people should look with detestation on those who had proved themselves strangers to every humane sensation.

Mohilla is very seldom visited, not only from the dislike the inhabitants have to strangers, but also from there not being any place convenient for the reception of ships.

These islands, however, are fertile, and abound with cattle, sheep, hogs, and fowls of various sorts. They also produce sweet and sour oranges, great and small citrons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, honey, betel, sugar-canes, rice, and ginger.

Angazeja is inhabited by Moors, who trade with various parts of the continent, and most of the islands to the eastward, in cattle, fruits, and the other commodities of the island, exchanging them for calicoes, and other cotton cloths. The bread used in this island is made of the kernel of the cocoa-nut, boiled or broiled, and spread over with honey. Their drink is palm wine, a juice extracted from the sugar-cane, and suffered to ferment, or the milk of the cocoa-nut. They never let their women be seen by strangers, without permission from one of the chiefs, or an order to see them, which the stranger brings with him. Many of them write and read Arabic with great facility: and some of them understand the Portuguese, which they learn by means of their intercourse with Mosambique, whither they trade in vessels of 40 tons burthen. The houses are built of stone and lime, made of calcined oyster-shells, with which the walls and roofs are plastered in a very elegant manner, and the roofs and windows covered with palm-leaves, which serve equally as a defence against rain, and the scorching heat of the sun. This island is under the government of ten lords, the constitution being a pure aristocracy.

Mohilla is under the direction of a sultan, whose children participate in his authority, whether male or

female, and govern in quality of viceroys in different parts of the island. All, however, bear the title of sultans, though they are, in some respects, subordinate to the authority of the father: each have their guards, crown, scepter, and all the ensigns and pageantry of majesty, together with a brilliant court, and numerous household. The sultan never goes abroad without being attended by twenty of the principal persons in the island, upon which occasion his dress is a long robe of striped callico, hanging from his shoulders to his heels, with a turban on his head. The people in general wear loose callico gowns, and are continually chewing areka, or betel, in the manner of the East Indians, to whom, in their customs, they have affinity.

Johanna is the most frequented, and best known to Europeans, of all the Comoro Islands; for here they touch for refreshments in their passage to Bombay, and the Malabar coasts of India.

This island lies in 12 deg. 20 min. south lat. It is 30 miles long, 15 broad, and about 90 in circumference. Though some parts of it are exceeding mountainous, yet it is, in general, a very beautiful and fertile spot. The soil is naturally very good, and, from its being well watered by rivers, produces abundance of the chief necessities of life.

In order to display the beauties of this island, as well as to take the advantage of introducing a proper description of its natural productions, we shall relate the account of an excursion taken by two gentlemen the second day after they landed on this island; which account is as follows: "As we set out pretty early in the morning say they, we made a shift to penetrate about five miles into the country before the sun began to be any ways troublesome; and this was no small stretch, considering the mountainous track we had to go. We had fowling-pieces with us, and the view of excellent sport in shooting, could we have reached the places where we might perceive the game lay; but we could not conquer the ascent of the hills, though we endeavoured to scramble up them on our hands and knees. We were obliged therefore to rest satisfied with what small birds presented themselves in the vallies and hills that were passable. We made our breakfast on pine-apples and the milk of cocoa-nuts. About noon, coming to a beautiful piece of water, we seated ourselves in the shade by the banks of it, to make a second meal, as well as to enjoy the tinkling of several little springs and natural cascades that fell from the rocks, and, according to their distance, seemed to sound a gradation of notes, so as to form a kind of agreeable soothing water music.

"The

"The orange and lime-trees, which stood in great numbers about that spot of ground, bending under the weight of their fruit, diffused a most fragrant odour. There were also pine-apples which grew wild, of eleven and thirteen inches in circumference, of a much richer flavour than those we afterwards met with in India. Our guides too made us distinguish a number of goyava, and especially plumb-trees, the size of whose fruit is about that of a damascene, and leaves a pleasing relish on the palate for some minutes after it is eaten. All these growing promiscuously, and without the least arrangement or order, combined with the falls of water, and the stupendous height of the surrounding hills, covered with trees and verdure, and, in their various breaks and projections, exhibiting the boldest strokes of nature, altogether composed what might, without exaggeration, be called a terrestrial paradise, compared to which the finest gardens in Europe, with their statues, artificial cascades, compartments, and all the refinements of human invention, would appear poor indeed! Here it was impossible for art to add any thing, but what would rather spoil than adorn the scenery.

"It was not then without regret that we quitted so charming a spot, after having feasted our eyes with the beauties of it; to which it may be mentioned, as no inconsiderable addition, that there was no fear of wild beasts or venomous creatures to interrupt our pleasure.

The chief cattle of this island are oxen, sheep, and hogs. The oxen are in general of a middling size, and, like those in the East Indies, are remarkable for having a large fleshy excrescence between their neck and back. Their flesh is very sweet, and the excrescence, when kept some time in pickle, tastes like marrow, and is generally preferred either to tongue or udder.

In the woods are great numbers of monkeys of different kinds and sizes, and a beast called mongooz. This animal is about the size of a small cat, and has a head shaped like a fox, with black eyes and orange-coloured circles round the pupil. The hair about the eyes is black, and hangs downwards in a point towards the nose, which is also black; but there is a space between the eyes and nose entirely white, which is continued to the sides of the face as far as the ears. The upper parts of the head, neck, back, tail and limbs, are of a dark brown ash colour, and the hair is somewhat woolly. The under side of the body is white, and the paws are like human hands, with flat nails, except a sharp pointed claw on the second toe of the hinder feet. The tail is long, and the hair thick and soft. Its actions are like those of a monkey. It feeds on fruits, herbs, and almost every thing else, not excepting even live fish. There are several sorts of these animals, which differ only in colour: and they are all very harmless and inoffensive.

The maucaulo is an animal about the size of a cat, with a head nearly resembling that of a fox. It has a lively piercing eye, its coat is woolly and generally of a mouse colour, and its tail, which is about three feet long, is variegated with circles of black within an inch of each other quite to the end. When taken young it soon grows tame. The country abounds with squirrels large and shy, but neither of good shape or colour.

They have fowls and ducks here; also great variety of game, but the inhabitants are so inexperienced in the use both of nets and guns, that very few of them are caught.

The sea here abounds with several sorts of excellent fish, which the natives are very expert in catching, particularly thornbacks, mullets, and a flat fish greatly resembling turbot. But the most remarkable species is the parrot fish, so called from its mouth, which is made like the bill of a parrot. It is about a foot long, and the colour is greenish, variegated near the head with yellow. The fins are blue, as are also the eyes, which are very sprightly, and have a yellow iris: the scales are very large, and there are two rows of strong teeth in the mouth, with which it breaks open muscles and

oysters. The flesh of this fish is very firm, and well tasted.

The male natives of this island are in general tall, strong, and well proportioned; but the women are not so well made as the men. They have all long black hair, piercing eyes, lips somewhat inclining to be thick, and are in general of a colour between an olive and a black.

The poorer sort live in huts made of reeds tied together, and plaistered over with a mixture of clay and cow-dung; and the roofs are thatched with a kind of matting made of cocoa leaves. The better sort have their houses made of stone and mud.

Their principal food consists of vegetables and milk, which they have here in great plenty and perfection. Instead of oil and vinegar to their salads, they use a kind of liquid, somewhat like our treacle, which they extract from the cocoa nut.

Persons of rank are distinguished by the nails of their fingers and toes, which they suffer to grow to an immoderate length: they paint them with the alkenna, a yellowish red produced from a particular shrub that grows in the marshy parts of the island. They usually carry large knives stuck in a gash they wear round their waists, some of which have silver, or agate handles, but the generality are made of wood carved.

The common people have no other cloathing than a piece of coarse cloth wound round the waist, with a skull-cap made of a kind of stuff. Those of superior rank have a kind of wide-sleeved shirt, which hangs down over a pair of large drawers, and a waistcoat made thick or light, according to the season of the year; and the very distinguished of all wear turbans on their heads.

The women wear a short jacket and petticoat, with a kind of loose gown, and, when they go abroad, have a veil over their faces. They take great pains in ornamenting their arms, legs, and ears, in the latter of which they have such a quantity of trinkets made of metal, that the lobes of them are so dilated by the weight as almost to touch the shoulders. Their arms and wrists are decorated with a number of bracelets, made of glass, iron, copper, pewter, or silver, according to their respective ranks or circumstances.

Children, from their birth, both males and females, go stark naked till they are seven or eight years of age; a custom they have in common with the orientals, who are not so much governed in it by the heat of the climate, or necessity, as by physical reasons. They imagine that infants are constitutionally more apt to be hurt by heat than cold; and that the free access of the air to all parts of their bodies, is even nutritious, and more favourable to their principles of growth, than if they were sweltered up with swathing clothes, which, they think, rob them of a hardiness conducive to their health. By these means the children are preserved from complaints, to which others are subject, from their cloaths being so binding as to occasion them to cry, and frequently to such a degree, as to terminate, through their straining, into ruptures. This conduct, with respect to their children, appears to be very consistent, and to have the wished-for effect; for instead of meeting with a deformed person, it is very rare to see one who is not admirably proportioned. The Jorhannians judiciously endeavour to acquire health, which above all enjoyments in this life is certainly the most desirable acquisition.

The natives are in general a plain, simple, well-meaning, inoffensive people, and strictly honest in their dealings. In their manners they retain a great deal of the simplicity of uncultivated nature. The mildness of the climate renders them indolent. They often make use of the liberty, granted them by their laws, of divorcing their wives, upon slight pretences, for the sake of novelty; though they have generally two or three of them, and are confined to no number of concubines they can maintain. They are very forward to beg any thing they like; but far from being dis-

posed to theft. They treat the English, in particular, very cordially and fraternally; not purely from a principle of interest and convenience, which, however, has doubtless some influence, but from gratitude, for the effectual assistance they formerly received from them in their wars with the Mohillians. Being moreover assured, by a frequent intercourse, that they have no design of invading their country or liberty, of which they retain a strong jealousy against other European nations, and of the Portuguese especially; to whose usurpation of the sea-coast on the continent they are no strangers, against which they chiefly, and with great reason, rely on the inaccessibility of their mountains, of which nature has formed to them an impenetrable barrier, and defence of the interior country.

Their language is a corrupt Arabic, mixed with the Zanguebar tongue, of the opposite part of the continent.

Their religion is a compound of superstition and absurdity, and nothing strikes them with such horror as the idea of ghosts and spectres.

In the island are a number of villages, besides the town of Johanna, the residence of the chief, or king; and the number of inhabitants is estimated at 30,000. The town of Johanna contains about 200 houses, most of which are inhabited by the principal men of the country. These are built of stone, but are all very low, except the king's palace, which is both lofty and spacious. The people here suffer strangers to come familiarly into their first apartment, but reserve all the others for the use of their families.

The title of king is justly given to the chief of this island, he having all the essentials of royalty, with an unlimited power over his subjects, both in spirituals and temporals.

Mr. Grose, who was a considerable time here, and to whom we are greatly obliged for many particulars relative to this island, has furnished us with a very curious account of the means by which the sovereignty of it was first acquired, which, for the entertainment of the reader, we shall give in his own words.

"The grandfather (says he) of the present king was an Arab, or Moorish trader to Mosambique, where, on a quarrel with a Portuguese fidalgo, or gentleman, with whom he was dealing for slaves on that coast, he had the fortune to kill his adversary, and was thereon obliged instantly to fly, and put to sea in the first boat he could seize on the shore, when the first land he made was Johanna, where he took refuge. Here, meeting with an hospitable reception, he remained some years in obscurity, until an Arab trunk being driven in there by stress of weather, he made himself known to his countrymen, for whom he procured all the relief the place afforded.

"In the mean time he had so perfectly acquainted himself with the language and manners of the inhabitants, and was so captivated with the fertility and pleasantness of the country, that he not only relinquished every thought of returning to his own, but laid a scheme to obtain for himself the sovereignty of this, in which he was greatly countenanced and assisted by the Arabs, his countrymen, who came into his views, from the advantage they expected to receive from his success.

"He proceeded not on a plan of violence, but of insinuation, in making himself necessary to the natives, whom he instructed in the use of arms, before unknown to them, especially in the assagaye, or lance, which chose of any consideration among them now handle with dexterity. This, then, with other methods of war which he taught them, entirely new to these simple people, proving of singular service to them, against the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands, especially of Mohilla, with whom they had constant bickerings, sometimes invading, and sometimes invaded, acquired him such a consideration and authority, that he soon availed himself thereof, and procured himself to be elected their chief or king, and invested with a despotic power. Yet this was not obtained but by degrees, and by great art; themselves, too, being divided among

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one another. As soon, however, as he had carried his point, he made them repent of their credulity and confidence; for not only strengthening himself by calling in some of his countrymen, with their families, but choosing for his guards the most bold and determined of the natives, he was soon in a condition to establish an arbitrary government. Such as endeavoured to oppose him in his pretensions and innovations, he forced from their families, and sold them to the Arabs for slaves, who, on this alteration, increased their resort there for trade, which they still continue. In short, he succeeded so entirely as to overcome all opposition, and to bequeath the peaceable sovereignty to his son, who was about 43 years of age when his father died, and who had no further trouble or contention with his subjects, until also dying a few years ago, he left two sons, of whom the eldest is at present king of the island."

The king resides, for the most part, about nine miles, according to their computation, up the country, seldom coming down to what they call their Lower Town, on the sea-side, but when the European ships are lying there, at which times he is accompanied by a very numerous retinue. He seldom misses going on board the vessels, where the captains regale him in the best manner they are able, after the European fashion, and compliment him, both on his arrival and departure, with a discharge of five guns.

Every captain is obliged to have a licence from the king before he can trade with the natives; but this licence is easily acquired, nothing more being wanting than to compliment him with a few trifling articles of European manufacture.

As soon as a ship anchors in the road, it is immediately surrounded with a number of canoes, hurrying on board with refreshments of all sorts of the produce of the island; and it is diverting enough to observe the confusion and strife among the rowers, who shall get first to the ship to dispose of their commodities. They are sometimes overset when the sea is high, but without any danger to their persons, being excellent swimmers, and lose only their little cargoes of green trade. These canoes are most of them ballanced on each side with out-leagers, composed of two poles each, with one across, to prevent their oversetting. They use paddles instead of oars, and make no distinction of head or stern. Their larger boats, called panguays, are raised some feet from the sides, with reeds and branches of trees, well bound together with a small cord, and afterwards made water-proof with a kind of bitumen, or resinous substance. The mast (as few have more than one) carries a sail or two, which is made either of cocoa leaves, or steer-grass matted together: and in these boats they will venture out to sea for trips of three or four weeks, and sometimes longer.

It was common, some years ago, for the natives, who came off with refreshments to the ships, such as fresh cocoa-nuts, plantains, fowls, goats, &c. to deal entirely by way of barter, for handkerchiefs, rags, glass bottles, bits of iron, and, in short, all sorts of trifling articles, without paying any respect to money. They are now, however, well acquainted with the value of gold and silver, and are not altogether so fond of baubles as they used to be; for if the Europeans want to purchase cattle, fowls, or cowries, they desire to be paid either in specie, fire-arms, or gunpowder. They have likewise fallen upon a method of soliciting those who come there, particularly all passengers, to contribute a dollar or two towards improving their navigation, which they carry on with the African continent; and, by way of persuasive example, produce several lists of persons who have subscribed to that purpose; so that they sometimes collect 30 or 40 dollars a ship, from those who touch here: and when the captains leave the place, they generally make it a point for them to sign, and leave with them, a certificate of good usage.

Thus the most savage inhabitants of the world daily improve in cunning and artifice; though we must not

from thence infer that they grow *wiser*, a common and misapplied epithet for peoples growing more knavish than formerly; which induces some, who are fond of false prudence, to conclude that they are consequently less foolish: but where integrity does not go hand in hand with improvement, we refine away happiness, and sacrifice every social virtue to chicanery and artifice. In the pure simplicity of nature, the productions of the earth are as free as the air we breathe, and every one partakes as he pleases of the bounties of Providence. At length the people improve till they get an idea of private property; and that immediately puts them upon the expedient of valuing one commodity by another, and making use of barter to supply each others necessities. Again, successive improvements evince that barter is attended with many inconveniencies, as it is almost impossible, where the truck is various, properly to estimate one commodity by the casual value of another; hence the necessity of coinage appears, in which commodities of all kinds and values may be easily paid for, an equivalent readily given, and commercial intercourse carried on with the greatest facility. But if a people who thus refine, in the course of their improvement lose their probity, and become fraudulent, exchange their natural benevolence for the avarice of trade, and sacrifice their integrity to commercial artifices, their refinement is a misfortune, and their improvements contribute to their unhappiness; for the poor shepherd, blessed with purity of conscience, is sensible of more essential bliss than the rich and great, whose minds are monitors against them for their deviation from the line of rectitude.

The Island of Mayotta, according to the account of a French commodore, is rather low, but abounds with provisions and fruit; cool, moist, covered with verdure, and inhabited all along the sea-shore. "The tide (says he) carried us westward along the coast to a point where we came in sight of a ship, upon which I sent out our long-boat with 10 musketeers, who brought me word that it was a vessel of 40 tons, bound from Mecca, and that the captain, taking us for Dutch ships, had run all the goods on shore. The captain of this vessel shewed me two letters, one from an English commander named Martin, and another from Capt. Banner, to inform their countrymen, that they had taken in several refreshments at that place, especially fruit; that they had found no water; and that linen cloth and paper were proper commodities for that place; adding, that care ought to be taken not to disoblige the inhabi-

tants, who, though they appeared friendly, were able to do them a great deal of mischief. The road being surrounded with rocks, the Arabian master advised me not to attempt landing without fetching a pilot from the shore; and accordingly I sent my boat along with him, and in the afternoon he returned with two of the inhabitants, who, before sun-set, brought our ship safe to anchor. I then sent the Arabian master back to his own ship with full assurances of the innocence of our designs, and the friendly disposition of the French, together with a letter to the same purpose, addressed, in Spanish, to the king of the island.

"Afterwards the king sent some of his chief favourites to assure us of his friendship, and readiness to supply us with whatever the country afforded. Upon this I sent him a present of a silver hilted hanger, a couple of very handsome knives, a ream of paper, and a looking-glass, which he received with pleasure, and, in return, sent me a young kid and some fruit. I at the same time desired the Arabian captain, who was then on shore, to buy me some provisions, promising to send such commodities as were proper to be given in exchange. Upon this the captain sent me word, that the inhabitants of the island were of such a particular humour, that they would not conclude a bargain of the value of half a rial in a day's time; and would not buy a yard of cloth, without calling all their relations and neighbours to fix the price they should give for it. I was also informed that a Portuguese carrack, having been cast away upon that island about three years before, the inhabitants were so overstocked with rials, that they set no value upon them.

"The next day, having observed a couple of ships belonging to that country, I had the captains brought on board, when they informed me that they came from the Island of Mayotta; that they were laden with rice and dried fish, and were bound for Monbaza. The next day they supplied me with as much rice, peas, and hung beef, as would serve us for four months; of which I was very glad, as I could buy nothing of the inhabitants without an infinite loss of time. Besides, I began to suspect their honesty; for the day before, when we were founding, in order to come to an anchor, some of them made a signal for us to come over a place where we observed a long ridge of rocks, whence, I presumed, that the advantage they made by the shipwreck of the Portuguese carrack, had tempted them to wish us the same fate. Finding, likewise, that the water was brackish, we sailed away, and left the place."

C H A P XXV.

THE ISLAND OF ZOCOTORA, OR SOCOTORA.

THIS island, which was discovered by the Portuguese in 1560, is situated in 10 deg. 12 min. north lat. and 53 deg. 16 min. east long. about 30 leagues to the eastward of Cape Guardafui, on the most easterly point of the continent of Africa. It is about 80 miles in length, and 54 in breadth, and has two good harbours.

The climate of this island is sultry, owing to the short continuance of rains, which seldom last more than two or three weeks in the season. This defect, however, is happily remedied by heavy dews, occasioned by the lofty mountains, whose tops are generally covered with snow, so high as to condense the clouds, and afterwards dissolve them in a kind of heavy mist or fog, which thoroughly waters the earth. In some parts are rivers which rise from springs, and are never affected even by the driest seasons; but other parts are totally destitute of water, except in the rainy season.

This island is populous; and the inhabitants are under the government of a prince, or sultan, who was

once subject to the xeriffs of Arabia, but now is tributary to the Porte.

The country abounds in cattle and fruit, with which, and some other commodities, the natives trade to Gou, where they are better received than the Arabs, who are not permitted to enter that town without passports.

The other productions of the island are aloes, frankincense, dragon's blood, rice, dates, ambergris, and coral.

Of coral there are various kinds, some of which resemble small trees without leaves; others are in the form of a net, sometimes with large meshes, and sometimes with small. The inside of the branches seems to be of the nature of horn; for it has the same scent when put into the fire; but the bark is of a stony nature, and contains a great deal of salt. Coral, properly so called, is of a stony nature, and placed in the animal kingdom, because it produces sea insects. Some of these are red, others white, and others of various colours. However, the red, of the colour of vermillion, is best, and

and is by some said to be of the male kind; and that which is palish of the female. The white coral is the next in value, and then the black; but those of the other colours some will not allow to be corals, though they are found in the same places. It is always covered with bark, and is stony, solid, and very hard, even in the water; though the branches are a little flexible, but soon grow hard in the air. The bark of coral is a mixture of tartar, and a fluid of a glutinous nature; and though it is a little rough, it takes a very fine polish. Some take the black coral to be a sea plant of a different nature.

Red coral is not so much esteemed in Europe as it is in Asia, and particularly in Arabia. It is used for making several sorts of toys, such as spoons, heads of canes, knife-handles, and beads; and, when set in silver, serves as a play-thing for children, and is designed to rub their gums therewith, that they may cut their teeth more easily.

On the young branches of coral there are found small eminences, pierced in the form of stars, and full of a milky fluid when they are just taken out of the water. Many learned men have thought sea plants to be nothing but petrefactions, consisting of plates of salt, and layers of tartar, placed one upon another; and as coral always grows with its head downwards, in caverns of rocks in the sea, the situation has caused them to suspect that they were nothing else but petrefactions, like those found on the roofs of certain caves in the rocks. But since the discovery of the flowers of coral, and some other marine productions, it is not at all doubted but they have a regular organization; and if their seeds have not been perceived, it is because their smallness renders them imperceptible.

But some have thought that the generation of these plants is not owing to their seeds, because as they always hang with their heads downwards, they would fall off to the bottoms of the caverns, and not place themselves on the top: but this difficulty may be removed, by supposing they are lighter than the sea water, and that the milk which surrounds them is of so thick a nature, that it may help to assist them in swimming. Hence, indeed, it may happen, that many of them may rise to the top of the water, and there perish; but then, likewise, others may ascend to the tops of caverns, and there fix themselves, and then they will grow like coral, from which they proceed. Hence we may conclude, from the regularity of these productions, the organization of their parts, the great numbers of small pores in their bark to receive the bitumen and other sea juices, the eminences regularly hollowed in the form of stars, which serves for the cases of flowers in the same shape, the vessels full of a milky fluid which are found between the bark and the body of the plant, to make it grow thicker by little and little, and the perpetual uniformity of the same circumstances; from all these particulars we have reason to believe, that the bottom of the sea is covered with plants with characters different from ours.

The red coral is the only one chosen for medicinal uses. It is a good absorbent, and therefore proper to restrain the organism of the blood, and to blunt the acrimony of the bile and other humours in various sorts of fluxes, as well as for the gripes in children.

The inhabitants derive great advantages from exporting these articles to many parts of the Indies, as well as Europe, obtaining for them, in exchange, all the necessaries and luxuries of life.

Besides the natives of this island, there are here great numbers of Arabs; the latter of whom call the former by the name of Beduins, or shaped bantes. These last are divided into two sorts, namely, the natives of the coast, who intermarry with the Arabs, and are called Half-Beduins; and those of the interior parts, who religiously adhere to their own customs, and reckon it an heinous crime to mingle blood with foreigners. These last are the true Beduins, or original inhabitants of the country. They are much fairer than the Indians, and are in general tall, and proportionably made; but in

their dispositions they are deceitful, indolent, and great cowards, suffering themselves to be enslaved, in a manner, by an handful of Arabs, and attending to nothing besides husbandry and pasture, both which are chiefly carried on by the women. Their food consists of milk, butter, rice, dates, and the flesh of their cattle; and their common drink is water.

The other inhabitants of this island are of a low stature, disagreeable complexion, lean habit, and have hideous features; but they are very hardy, strong, and active. They feed on fish, flesh, milk, butter, and vegetables. Their common dish is a composition of all these boiled together, with which they eat bread, rice, or dates.

The dress of the people of this island differs according to the several parts of it. The native Beduins go almost naked, having nothing more than a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist, and a cap made of goats skin. The women go bareheaded, and have a short gown or cloak, with a shift made of goats hair. But the most general dress of these islanders consists of a long cloak, which reaches from the waist to the ankles: it hangs down in a train behind, and is not unbecoming, though extremely incommodious, on account of the heat of the climate. When they are at work they gather it up, and fasten it round the waist with a girdle.

The native islanders are grossly ignorant with respect to things in general. Their only ingenuity is displayed in the camboline manufacture, which is a beautiful stuff, made with the hair of goats and other animals.

These people have several very strange and uncommon customs. They practice polygamy, and divorce their wives at pleasure, either for a certain time, or for ever. They may even be the father of children, without being obliged to maintain either them or the mother, provided the latter, during her pregnancy, consents that the father shall give away the child, when it sees the light. On these occasions the father kindles a fire before the door of his hut or cave, and then makes proclamation that he will give away the infant of which his wife is on the point of being delivered. After this he fixes upon some particular person for its adopted father, to whom the infant is carried immediately after its birth. Here it meets with all that tenderness, kindness, and those caresses which are denied it by the unnatural father, is given to a nurse, and ordered to be fed with goats milk. These children are called, *The sons or daughters of smook*: and it frequently happens that a good-natured man shall have the honour of rearing a dozen children, upon whom he bestows all the affection of a real parent. This is certainly one of the most extraordinary customs to be met with in history, as it does not seem to be founded either on the principle of religion, policy, or inclination, but upon mere caprice only; for it is common with a father, who exposes his own, to adopt the children of others, and requite, by his kindness to the latter, the good offices due to the former.

These people have also another custom, which is no less strange and singular than the above. They generally bury their sick before they have breathed their last, making no distinction between a dying and a dead person. They esteem it a duty to put the patient out of pain as soon as possible, and make this their request to their friends when they are on the sick bed, which, in all acute disorders, may be called the death-bed. When the father of a family finds himself thus circumstanced, and apprehends that his dissolution is near, he assembles his children around him, whether natural or adopted, his parents, wives, servants, and all his acquaintances, whom he strongly exhorts to a compliance with the following articles of his last will: Never to admit any alteration in the doctrine or customs of their ancestors; never to intermarry with foreigners; never to permit an affront done to them, or their predecessors, or a beast stole from either of them, to go unpunished; and, lastly, never to suffer a friend to lie in pain, when they can

can relieve him by death. Such are the extraordinary requests of a dying man; after which he makes the signal to have the last of them performed upon himself, and expires.

This last duty is frequently performed by means of a white liquor of a strong poisonous quality, which oozes from a tree peculiar to this island. Hence it is that murders are more common here than in any country in the world; for, besides the inhuman custom last mentioned, the other requests of dying men produce numberless quarrels, and entail family feuds and bloodshed upon their posterity for generations, by taking revenge of the injuries done to their ancestors.

How different are these customs from those adopted by the Turks, who even found hospitals for superannuated and decayed horses, and gratefully repay, when old age has disabled them, the services they have received from those useful animals while in their prime and vigour, considering, benevolently and philosophically, that *the whole universe is one system of society*.

Look round our world, behold the chain of love
Combining all below, and all above;
See plastic nature working to its end,
The single atoms to each other tend,
Attract, attracted to, the next in place,
Form'd and impell'd its neighbour to embrace.
See matter next, with various life endu'd,
Press to one center still, the gen'ral good.
See dying vegetables life sustain,
See life dissolving vegetate again:
All forms that perish, other forms supply,
(By turns we catch the vital breath and die,)
Like bubbles on the sea of matter born,
They rise, they break, and to that sea return.
Nothing is foreign, parts relate the whole;
One all-extending, all-preserving soul,
Connects each being, greatest with the least;
Made beast in aid of man, and man of beast;
All serv'd, all serving; nothing stands alone;
The chain holds on, and where it ends unknown.

In this island justice is administered by the chief magistrates, who are next in rank to the sultan: they are called *hodamos*, and sit at certain times to judge and determine in all causes, political and ecclesiastical, civil or criminal. They hold their office only for a year, during which they preserve the most distinguished power and dignity. There is no appeal from this tribunal, nor can the successors reverse any decree passed before their coming into office.

In criminal cases the punishment for murder is death, which is done either by cutting off the offenders head, or impaling him alive. In cases of theft, if the robber escapes with his booty, and takes sanctuary in a temple, he is protected; but if he is caught by the person robbed, before he reaches the temple, he is then delivered up to justice, and the punishment for the crime is the loss of his right-hand. Other trifling matters are punished by fines, one half of which goes to the sultan, and the other half is equally divided among the magistrates.

With respect to the religion of the inhabitants of this island, the Arabs amongst them are Mahometans, but all the rest are Pagans, and practise the most superstitious maxims. They adhere strictly to circumcision, and are so nice in preserving this rite, that they cut off the fingers of those whose parents have neglected to perform the operation upon them, or have themselves refused it.

They keep lent, or at least fasts equivalent to it, which they begin to observe at the new moon in March, abstaining for the space of 60 days, from milk, butter, flesh, and fish, and living wholly upon dates, rice, honey, and vegetables; procuring the money from Arabia, in exchange for aloes and frankincense. They have altars and crosses, but as they are entirely ignorant of every tenet of the Christian church, nothing

certain can be deduced from ceremonies and usages handed down by tradition, of which they can give no manner of account, or for which they cannot produce a single reason. That they are gross idolaters is sufficiently evident from their worshipping the moon, which they esteem as the creative principle of all things; a notion extremely inconsistent with atheism, much more with Christianity, and the doctrines of redemption.

At times of great drought they assemble in a solemn manner, and offer up their petitions to the moon. They make a public sacrifice to her towards the beginning of lent, and offer up numbers of goats in honour of her. They enter into their temples whenever the moon rises or sets, and practise several other religious ceremonies, which prove them to be the zealous votaries of this inconsistent deity, and totally ignorant of the principles of the Christian religion.

A late celebrated traveller says, "At the rising and setting of the moon, (or more probably at the new and full moon,) they make solemn processions round their temples, or *moquamos*, as also round their buying-places, striking against each other two pieces of odoriferous wood, about a yard long, which each man holds in his hands. This ceremony they perform three times in the day, and as often at night; after which, putting a large cauldron, suspended by three chains, over a great fire, they dip into it splinters of wood, with which they light their altars, and the porch of the temple. They then put up their prayers to the moon, that she will enlighten them with her countenance, shed upon them her benign influence, and never permit foreigners to intermix with them. They make also an annual procession round the temples, preceded by a cross; and the whole ceremony ends upon the priest's clapping his hands together, as a signal that the moon is tired with their worship. Others say that the signal consists in cutting off the fingers of the person who holds the cross; in recompence for which he has given him a flick, with certain marks, prohibiting all persons, of whatever degree or condition, to molest or hurt him ever after: on the contrary, they are to aid and assist him with all their power, in whatever manner he may require their help; and to respect and honour him as a martyr to religion, under the penalty of corporal punishment, and the loss of an arm."

These particulars, relative to the religion of the inhabitants of this island, are confirmed by Sir Thomas Roe, who, during his stay here, took great pains to preserve, in his journal, a minute account of the manners and customs of the natives. This writer says, that he found the inhabitants of this island to consist of four different sorts of men, viz. of Arabs, whom the king of Caxem had sent to keep the island in subjection to him; of slaves to the prince, who are employed in preparing aloes, and other offices of drudgery; of Beduins, the primitive inhabitants of the island, who were banished to the mountains till they submitted to the yoke, and agreed to breed up their children in the Mahometan religion; and, lastly, of savages, with long hair, who live naked in the woods, and refuse all society.

To add to the particulars already mentioned, of this island and its inhabitants, it may not be improper to preserve the short account given of it by Mandstow, who was an accurate observer, and very particular in describing the manners and customs of the people. "They live (says this writer) chiefly upon fish, roots, and fruit. They have no wild fowl, and great scarcity of tame; yet they are not destitute of cows, camels, asses, and sheep, with goats, whose hair upon the thighs is curled in the manner in which satyrs are painted. Their arms are swords with large hilts, without a guard; poinards with long blades, which they constantly wear stuck in their girdles; and fire-arms, which they manage with some dexterity, but cannot keep them in order, or free from rust, so that in a few weeks they are rendered useless. They are remarkably expert in the use of bucklers, which they

wield in such a manner as to protect every part of the body, and are wounded only when their shoulders are pierced, or cut down by blows. Though they live in an island, and trade with the continent, they are ignorant of navigation, and have no other vessels than flat-bottomed fishing-boats, with which, however, they weather great storms. The torrents that tumble down from the mountains, like rivers, either in rainy weather, or when the snow on the tops of the mountains is melted by the sun, sufficiently supplies all foreign shipping with water. Though they are Mahometans, yet they worship the sun and moon; Christians or infidels their religion is a strange mixture of truth and infidelity. But one would imagine, that idolatry and paganism prevailed, from the solemn processions and sacrifices made to those luminaries.

"The Socotorans use their women, who are chiefly Arabians, with great tenderness; but are so jealous, that they never permit them to be seen by a stranger. As they are crafty and deceitful themselves, so they are suspicious of the same insincerity in others: they adulterate their commodities, and expect that those they deal with have done the same. The island affords some indifferent oranges, tobacco, citrons and cocoa-nuts; but they seldom come to maturity, on account of the stony, dry and sandy soil. Their chief commodity is aloes; and they have also dragon's-blood, and keep great numbers of civet cats; so that the civet may be purchased at Socotara for three or four crowns per ounce, which shews how plentiful it is; but, unhappily, there is no method of being secured from fraud, for they find means to adulterate the civet."

C H A P. XXVI.

The Straights of Babelmandel, the Islands of Babelmandel, Dahlak, Mafua, Marate, Swaken, and Barbora.

THE Straights at the entrance of the Red Sea were called Babelmandel, signifying *the gate of weeping*, or *port of affliction*, from the danger that attended the navigation of them. The Arabian Gulph, or Red Sea, which includes the Straights of Babelmandel, begins on that part of the ocean bounded on the side of Africa by Cape Guardafuy, and on the side of Asia by Cape Fartash. The intermediate strait was called by the Arabians and Indians, Albabo, signifying *the gates or mouths*, as it is not more than six leagues wide, and so interspersed with little islands as scarce to admit of shipping to pass through its channel.

The Arabians, however, are either more skilful in maritime affairs, or less timid than they were when they named these straits, as at present they do not seem afraid to navigate them.

THE ISLAND OF BABELMANDEL

IS situated towards the entrance into the Red Sea. It stands in the very middle of the straits, about four miles from the Arabian, and the same distance from the Abyssinian coasts, directly opposite to Cape Zeila. Hence it forms two channels, one on each side of it, and, from its situation, might, if properly fortified, command both.

The Abyssinians and Arabians formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance.

The island is a barren sandy spot of earth, not more than five miles in circumference. The Mahometans being now masters of both coasts, it is almost deserted, having only a few poor inhabitants, for whom it just supplies a subsistence. Yet these people, though poor, find the most perfect happiness in their situation; they possess what they deem a competence, and find the utmost felicity in what some might falsely call penury.

O happiness! our being's end and aim!
Good, pleasure, ease, content, whate'er thy name:
That something which still prompts th' eternal sigh,
For which we bear to live, nor fear to die,
Which still so near us, yet beyond us lies,
O'erlook'd, seen double, by the fool---and wise.
Plant of celestial seed, if dropp'd below,
Say in what mortal soil thou deign'st to grow?

Fair op'ning to some court's propitious shrine,
Or deep with diamonds, in the flaming mine?
Twin'd with the wreaths, Parnassian laurels yield,
Or reap'd in iron harvests of the field?
Where grows? where grows it not? If vain our toil,
We ought to blame the culture, not the soil:
Fix'd to no spot, is happiness sincere,
'Tis no where to be found, or ev'ry where;
Some place the bliss in action, some in ease,
Those call it pleasure, and contentment these;
Some, sunk to beasts, find pleasure end in pain,
Some, swell'd to gods, confess 'en virtue vain;
Or indolent, to each extreme they fall,
To trust in ev'ry thing, or doubt of all.

Who thus define it, say they more or less
Than this, that happiness is happiness?

Take nature's path, and mad opinion's leave;
All states can reach it, and all heads conceive;
Obvious her goods, in the extreme they dwell;
There needs but thinking right, and meaning well.
Know, all the good that individuals find,
Or God and nature meant to mere mankind,
Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
Lie in three words, health, peace and competence.
But health consists with temperance alone;
And peace, O virtue! peace is all thy own.
The gods of fortune, good or bad may gain;
But these less taste them, as they worse obtain.

D A H L A K

IS situated near the coast of Abex, being about 20 leagues eastward from the continent; and about the same distance south of Mafua.

It is the largest and most considerable island on this coast, being near 90 miles in circumference. The air is temperate and salubrious, the land well watered and verdant, and the people numerous and robust.

Great numbers of camels, oxen, goats, &c. feed in the pastures; the sea and rivers yield plenty of fish; and the inhabitants are profusely supplied from the continent with honey, corn, &c.

The wealth of the place arises chiefly from pearl-fishing, at which many of the natives are very dexterous; and the pearls found here are some of the finest in the universe.

Besides pearl this island produces many emeralds. These have the green colour in all its different shades, from very dark to extreme pale; and are sometimes entirely colourless; though the English jewellers call it white sapphire.

Those inhabitants of Dahlak who do not concern themselves in fishing are, in general, notorious pirates, and plunder all the ships that come in their way. They behave with asperity to all, but particularly to the Turks, when any of them are so unfortunate as to fall into their hands; and when they get home they take a peculiar pleasure in boasting of their piratical exploits to their wives, children and relations.

The king of Dahlak is sovereign of this, and many other islands; and his subjects consist chiefly of Abyssinian Christians, or Christians of the Abyssinian church.

The people of Dahlak, who appear to be of the Ethiopic race, are black and ill favoured; but strong, robust, bold, daring, and loyal to their sovereign. They are exceeding sagacious and crafty, fond of repeating and hearing entertaining tales, very pleasant companions, and admirably skilled in story-telling. Their cloathing is a large piece of silk or cotton (according to their respective ranks) tied round the middle, and hanging down to the feet; but from the middle upwards both sexes go naked. Their language is Arabic, intermixed with Ethiopian words.

The goat's hair here is very fine and long, so that it is manufactured into tolerable camblets. The soil, in general, of this island, is red; and though it does not produce much timber, yet it yields abundance of herbs. Here is a small insect resembling a bee, which feeds on a kind of gum that distils from a tree which hath some similitude to a cherry-tree; and from this insect it is said, that gum lac, used in varnishing, making sealing-wax, &c. is extracted.

The capital city, which goes by the same name as the island itself, is situated on a point of land to the westward of it; but it is of no great consideration, as the king resides, the greatest part of the year, at the little island of Masua, of which we shall now proceed to give some account.

M A S U A.

THIS island is only half a mile in length, and somewhat less in breadth. It is very flat, and lies very near the main land, that is, on the north-west side. It has a good harbour, secure in all weathers, the depth of the water being about eight or nine fathoms, and the ground oozy. The entrance of this port is on the north-east side, towards the middle of the channel, for from the east-north-east point of the island there runs a shoal towards another point; so that ships must take care to keep the middle of the channel, which is very strait, and consequently dangerous, and runs north-east and south-west.

The people here resemble those of Dahlak in customs, manners, &c. The men are also of two classes, those who follow traffic, or the pearl fishery, and those who live by piracy.

Masua, with all the opposite coast, was formerly subject to the emperor of Abyssinia; but within the last century it was seized by the king of Dahlak, who resides chiefly here for the convenience of carrying on a trade with the continent; from whence he receives abundance of gold and ivory.

The air is exceeding hot and unhealthy during the months of May and June for want of wind, so that the king and principal inhabitants retire to Dahlak during those months.

M A R A T E.

IS a low barren island, of a roundish shape, about three leagues from the continent, and 66 from Masua; but in compass it does not exceed five miles.

On the south-west side, facing the coast, there is a very good haven, secure from all winds, especially the eastern, made by two very long points, which extend north by west, and south by east, inclosing a spacious harbour, narrow at the mouth, where there lies a long, very flat island, with some sand banks and shoals, so

that no sea can get in. This port has two entrances, both very near the points. The channel, on the east side, lies north by west. The depth is three fathoms, in the shallowest place, and encreases advancing in the port, where, near the shore, it is four or five fathoms, and the bottom is rather muddy.

The people who inhabit this island differ in nothing with respect to customs, manners, &c. from those who reside in Masua, Dahlak, &c.

SWAKEN, SUAQUEN, or SAUCHEM.

THIS island is situated in 19 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 37 deg. 30 min. east long. and the port is deemed one of the best in the Red Sea. The entrance is by a narrow streight which leads to a lake, in the midst of which is an island, and a town that covers every part of the island.

This town was once very important, and extremely opulent; but since it has fallen into the hands of the Turks, like most other places, which those haughty, tyrannical, and idle people, have become possessed of, it has dwindled, lost its commerce and consequence, grown poor and less populous, and at present is of very trifling consideration.

The houses now remaining in Swaken, and the other little islands adjacent, are all built with stone and mortar, and formed much in the European manner: the decayed city of Swaken is the seat of a Turkish governor, who acts subordinate to the bassa of Grand Cairo, and the modern inhabitants are, in general, Turks or Arabs.

The best buildings in Swaken are the baths; and the most pleasing amusement which both the Turks and Arabs take is that of bathing. We have already observed, that bathing was deemed by the Mahometans a religious institution.

B A R B O R A

LIES in 10 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 47 deg. 2 min. east long. and has its appellation from a town of the same name on the neighbouring continent.

The inhabitants are negroes, and the common people wear cotton garments, which go round their waists, and hang down to their feet, the rest of the body being bare; but those of a superior quality have the addition of a long cotton gown, which covers them all over, their faces excepted.

These people are great breeders of cattle, for which the soil of the island affords excellent pasture; and very industrious traders, as they carry on a considerable traffic, by exchanging cattle, gold, frankincense, ivory, pepper, &c. for amber, necklaces, glass beads, raisins, dates, &c.

The inhabitants of this island, who tend the herds and flocks are some of the happiest and most inoffensive people in the universe: indeed, their felicity hath been so much the admiration and envy of others, that many capital men, from the adjacent kingdoms, and several rich Arabian merchants, have thought proper to retire hither from the adulation of courts, the dangers of war, the hazards of commercial voyages, and the painful bustle of trade, in order to taste, in rural retirement, those delicious pleasures, which they could not obtain in the pursuit of fame and riches.

But blest is he, who, exercis'd in cares,
To private leisure public virtue bears;
Who tranquil ends the race he nobly run,
And decks repose with trophies labour won:
Him honour follows to the secret shade,
And crowns propitious his declining head:
In his retreats their harps the muses string,
For him in lays unbought spontaneous sing:
Friendship and truth on all his moments wait,
Pleas'd with retirement better than with fate;
And round the bower where humbly great he lies
Fair olives bloom, or verdant laurels rise. The

The commodities they receive by commercial means are brought to them by Turkish, Moorish, Arabian, Egyptian, &c. merchants. Their traffic, however, is much decayed since the Europeans have formed such powerful commercial connections in the East Indies, as the merchants above alluded to naturally repair to the best mart, and seek the most profitable mode of vending their commodities.

Where gold allures the heart and charms the eye,
Most men towards its bright effulgence fly;
Forfake old friends, new riches to acquire,
And in the arms of avarice expire.

The inhabitants of this island are admired by all who have traded in those seas for their universal philanthropy, and are peculiar for their singular benevolence to each other, and their very humane treatment to domestic and other animals. It were to be wished that such virtues were more general, and that those who esteem themselves politer people, and boast of a more refined education would copy the shining parts of all characters, however differing from them in political or religious sentiments, or remote with respect to the locality of situation.

These ideas naturally turn our thoughts on the wanton cruelty and inhumanity often unnecessarily exercised towards the brute creation by Europeans, and too frequently extended even to our own species; and such reflections induce us to transcribe some excellent observations on the subject made by a reverend divine, as at the same time that these observations display those cruelties in their proper colours, with respect to ourselves, they apply with great propriety to some distinctions too frequently made with respect to the generality of the inhabitants of that part of the globe now under consideration.

"I presume (says he) there is no man of feeling, that has any idea of justice, but would confess, upon the principles of reason and common sense, that if he were to be put to unnecessary and unmerited pain by another man, his tormentor would do him an act of injustice; and from a sense of the injustice in his own case, now that he is the sufferer, he must naturally infer, that if he were to put another man of feeling to the same unnecessary and unmerited pain which he now suffers, the injustice in himself to the other should be exactly the same as the injustice in his tormentor to him. Therefore the man of feeling and justice will not put another man to unmerited pain, because he will not do that to another which he is unwilling should be done to himself. Nor will he take any advantage of his own superiority of strength, or of the accidents of fortune, to abuse them to the oppression of his inferior; because he knows that in the article of feeling all men are equal; and that the differences of strength or station are as much the gifts and appointments of God, as the differences of understanding, colour or stature. Superiority of rank or station may give ability to communicate happiness, (and seems so intended) but it can give no right to inflict unnecessary, or unmerited pain. A wise man would impeach his own wisdom, and be unworthy of the blessing of a good understanding, if he were to infer from thence that he had a right to despise, or make game of a fool, or put him to any degree of pain. The weakness of the fool ought rather to excite his compassion, and demands the wise man's care and attention to one that cannot take care of himself.

"It hath pleased God to cover some men with white skins, and others with black skins: but as there is neither merit nor demerit in complexion, the white man (notwithstanding the barbarity of custom and prejudice) can have no right, by virtue of his colour, to enslave and tyrannize over a black man; nor has a fair man any right to despise, abuse, and insult a brown man. Nor do I believe that a tall man, by virtue of his stature, has any legal right to trample a dwarf under his feet. For, whether a man is wise or foolish, white or

black, fair or brown, tall or short, such he is by God's appointment; and, extractedly considered, is neither a subject for pride, nor an object of contempt.

"Now if amongst men the differences of their powers of the mind, and of their complexion, stature and accidents of fortune, do not give to any one man a right to abuse or insult any other man on account of these differences; for the same reason a man can have no natural right to abuse and torment a beast, merely because a beast has not the mental powers of a man. For such as the man is, he is but as God made him; and the very same is true of the beast.

"A brute is an animal no less sensible of pain than a man. He has similar nerves and organs of sensation; and his cries and groans, in case of violent impressions on his body, though he cannot utter his complaints by speech or human voice, are as strong indications to us of his sensibility of pain, as the cries and groans of a human being, whose language we do not understand. Now as pain is what we are all averse to, our own sensibility of pain should teach us to commiserate it in others, to alleviate it if possible, but never wantonly or unmeritedly to inflict it.

"As the differences among men in these particulars are no bars to their feelings, so neither does the difference of the shape of a brute from that of a man exempt the brute from feeling; at least, we have no ground to suppose it. But shape or figure is as much the appointment of God as complexion or stature. And if the difference of complexion or stature does not convey to one man a right to despise and abuse another man, the difference of shape between a man and a brute cannot give to a man a right to abuse and torment a brute. For He that made man and man to differ in complexion, or stature, made man and brute to differ in shape and figure. And in this case there is neither merit or demerit: every creature, whether man or brute, bearing that shape which the Supreme Wisdom judged most expedient to answer the end for which the creature was ordained.

"With regard to the modification of the mass of matter of which an animal is formed, it is accidental as to the creature itself; I mean, it was not in the power or will of the creature to choose, whether it should sustain the shape of a brute or a man: and yet, whether it be of one shape, or of the other, the matter of which the creature is composed would be equally susceptible of feeling. It is solely owing to the will of God that we are created men. For He that "formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life," that he might "become a living soul," and endued him with the sense of feeling, could, if he had so pleased, by the same plastic power, have cast the very same dust into the mould of a beast; which, being animated by the life-giving breath of its Maker, would have become a "living soul," in that form; and, in that form, would have been as susceptible of pain as in the form of a man.

"If, then, in brutal shape, we had been endued with the same degree of reason and reflection which we now enjoy; and other beings, in human shape, should take upon them to torment, abuse, and barbarously ill-treat us, because we were not made in their shape, the injustice and cruelty of their behaviour to us would be self-evident: and we should naturally infer, that, whether we walk upon two legs or four; whether our heads are prone or erect; whether we are naked or covered with hair; whether we have horns or no horns, long ears or round ears; or, whether we bray like an ass, speak like a man, whistle like a bird, or are mute as a fish, nature never intended these distinctions as foundations for right of tyranny and oppression.

"But, perhaps, it will be said, it is absurd to make such an inference from a meer supposition that a man might have been a brute, and a brute might have been a man: for the supposition itself is chimerical, and has no foundation in nature; and all arguments should be drawn from facts, and not from fancy of what might be,

or what might not be. To this I reply in few words, and in general: that all cases and arguments, deduced from the important and benevolent precept of "doing to others as we would be done unto," necessarily require such kind of suppositions; that is, they suppose the case to be otherwise than it really is. For instance, a rich man is not a poor man; yet, the duty plainly arising from the precept is this---The man who is now rich ought to behave to the man who is now poor in such a manner as the rich man (if he were poor) would be willing that the poor man (if he were rich) should behave towards him. Here is a case which, in fact, does not exist between these two men; for the rich man is not a poor man, nor is the poor man a rich man; yet the supposition is necessary to enforce and illustrate the precept, and the reasonableness of it is allowed. And if the supposition is reasonable in one case, it is reasonable, at least not contrary to reason, in all cases to which this general precept can extend, and in which the duty enjoined by it can, and ought to be performed. Therefore, though it be true, that "a man is not a horse," yet, as a horse is a subject within the extent of the precept, that is, he is capable of receiving benefit by it, the duty enjoined in it extends to the man, and amounts to this: Do you that are a man so treat your horse, as you would be willing to be treated by your master, in case that you were a horse. I see no absurdity, or false reasoning in this precept: nor any ill consequence that would arise from it, however it may be gain-said by the barbarity of custom.

"In the case of human cruelty (that is, the cruelty of men unto men) the oppressed man has a tongue that can plead his own cause, and a finger to point out the aggressor: all men that hear of it shudder with horror, and, by applying the case to themselves, pronounce it cruelty with the common voice of humanity, and unanimously join in demanding the punishment of the offender. But in the case of brutal cruelty, the dumb beast can neither utter his complaints to his own kind, or describe the author of his wrong: or, if he could, have they it in their power to redress and avenge him.

"In the case of human cruelty there are courts and laws of justice in every civilized society, to which the injured man may make his appeal: the affair is canvassed, and punishment inflicted in proportion to the offence. But, alas! with shame to man, and sorrow for brutes, I ask the question, What laws are now in force? or what court of judicature does now exist, in which the suffering brute may bring his action against the wanton cruelty of barbarous man? No friend, no advocate, not one is to be found among the "bulls nor calves, (Psalm. lxxviii. 30.) to prefer an indictment in behalf of the brute: the wretched unbefriended creature is left to moan in unregarded sorrow, and sink under the weight of his burden.

"But suppose the law promulged, and the court erected. The judge is seated, the jury sworn, the indictment read, the cause debated, and a verdict found for the plaintiff. Yet what cost or damage? What recompence for loss sustained? In actions of humanity, with or without law satisfaction may be made. In va-

rious ways you can make amends to a man for the injuries you have done him; and by your assiduity and future tenderness may, perhaps, obtain his pardon, and palliate the offence. But what is all this to the injured brute? If, by passion, or malice, or sportive cruelty, you have broken his limbs, or deprived him of his eyesight, how can you make him amends? Thou canst do nothing to amuse him. Thou hast obstructed his means of getting subsistence; and thou wilt hardly take upon thyself the pains and trouble of procuring it for him (which yet by the rule of justice thou art bound to do.) Thou has marred his little temporary happiness, which was his all to him. Thou hast maimed, or blinded him for ever: and hast done him a cruel and an irreparable injury."

THE AZORES.

THESE islands, called also the Western Islands, have been, by different geographers, deemed parts of America, Africa and Europe, being situated almost in a central line between them; but as they lie near some of the places lately described we shall here insert them as the most proper place.

The Azores are situated between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 deg. north lat. They were discovered by the Portuguese, to whom they belong, and were by them called Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found there. There are nine in number, viz. St. Michael, Terceira, Pico, Santa Maria, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Flores and Corvo. They enjoy a salubrious air and fertile soil, but are subject to frequent inundations of the sea and tremendous earthquakes.

ST. MICHAEL, which is the most extensive of these islands, is about 100 miles in circumference, and the soil is very fit for tillage. It was twice invaded by the English in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The chief town is Ponta del Gado, but it does not contain any thing remarkable.

TERCEIRA is the most important of these islands on account of its harbour, which is spacious and defended by two forts that secure Angra the capital. This city is the residence of the governor of the Azores and the bishop. It contains eight convents and five churches, besides the cathedral.

PICO, which is nearly as large as St. Michael, carries on a great trade in wines, and abounds with cedar and a tough red wood much valued, called toros.

The rest of these islands do not contain any thing remarkable, nor do they vary from those described in any of their productions. But it must be observed that all of them have at least one harbour capable of receiving various kinds of vessels.



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A NEW, ROYAL, AUTHENTIC,
And COMPLETE SYSTEM of
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

B O O K IV.
A M E R I C A,

Including the New Discoveries on the Continent and Islands off the Coast.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

IN treating of those parts of the world which have already come under consideration, viz. Asia and Africa, we have, with peculiar care, collected, and, in full display, presented, both the New Discoveries, and the striking descriptions of our celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*, and, we trust, to the satisfaction of our numerous readers. America will afford us no less scope for gratification, nor shall we be less attentive, or less remiss in our endeavours, to render our account of this part of the world as instructive and entertaining as either of the former; to which a description of the different countries therein explored by our eminent Navigator will much conduce, as it will bring to view new countries, new men, and new manners, as well as exhibit novelty in the animal and vegetable systems. But previous to this, and in conformity to the order of our plan, as well as our desire to preserve every important historical event, it is expedient that we should introduce a circumstantial narrative of the first discovery made of America by the great Columbus, together with a general description of the country; to which will succeed, with due propriety, the discoveries of our no less celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*, and tend to hand him down, as well as the former, to future ages, as a character worthy of universal admiration.

C H A P. I.

FIRST DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS.

AS few or no discoveries have displayed more human sagacity and resolution, or been attended with more important consequences than that of America, we deem it expedient to present our readers with a circumstantial detail of that interesting event.

This was made in the fifteenth century, towards the close of which, Venice and Genoa were become, thro' the means of their commerce with the eastern world, the greatest maritime powers in Europe. Frequent voyages, some of which were of extent, introduced several improvements in the practical part of navigation; but the knowledge of mankind was still very imperfect, hardly extending beyond their sensible horizon. The true system of the world was unknown; and the imperfect notions entertained with regard to the figure and magnitude of the earth, had no other foundation than conjecture.

In this state of things, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, a man of aspiring genius, whose knowledge of the mathematics exceeded that of his contemporaries, in general, conceived a plan of sailing to the Indies by an unknown route, and thereby opening to himself a new source of opulence and power. This project was presented to his countrymen, and by them generally rejected, and clamorously called in question. He then applied to the court of Spain, and by the recommendation of Prince Henry, King of Portugal, he was introduced to the court of Spain, and by the recommendation of Prince Henry, King of Portugal, he was introduced to the court of Spain, and by the recommendation of Prince Henry, King of Portugal, he was introduced to the court of Spain.

wife spurned at it as imaginary, and reprobated the principles on which it was founded as absurd and chimerical. His last resource was the court of Spain, where, after eight years attendance, he succeeded through the special patronage of Queen Isabella, consort of King Ferdinand. This princess raised money necessary for the design upon her own jewels; so that he sailed, to his inexpressible joy, with three ships, in the year 1492, on a voyage, in the event of which the inhabitants of two worlds were concerned.

In this arduous attempt Columbus had many difficulties to encounter. He had no chart to direct him, no lights from former navigators, to which he could bet the dependency of his sailors, who, on their voyage, threatened to throw him overboard, and adhere to their return. At length, however, when his own invention and hopes were nearly exhausted, they fortunately discovered land, after a voyage of 33 days, which put an end to the commotion, so that his commands were obeyed with alacrity.

Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama Islands. The people, on the 12th of October, 1492, discovered a light upon the Island Guanahani, which the Admiral called St. Salvador, as it delivered him and his crew from impending destruction. Here he erected the royal standard, and took possession of the island, by the appellation of St. Salvador, in the name of our Catholic Majesty.

Majesties. The Indians, ignorant of his intention, made no opposition, being amused with the novelty and glitter of divers toys and trinkets which Columbus ordered to be distributed among them. These people were entirely naked, of the middle stature, and an olive complexion. Their features were regular, excepting their foreheads, which were rather out of proportion. Their hair, which, as well as their eyes, was black, was mostly cropped about their ears. Some painted their whole bodies, others only their faces, with a kind of faintish red. Many of them had ornaments pendant from the nose over the upper lip. They followed the strangers to their ships, some swimming, and others in canoes. The articles of exchange they brought on board were parrots and cotton yarn. They expressed the highest satisfaction with the European commodities; but gazed with peculiar delight at their swords and shining arms, being at that time ignorant of the use of iron.

Having taken a survey of this and several other islands adjacent, and being convinced, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of, Columbus steered to the southward, and discovered the island called by him Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessities of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, promising, from some samples he had received, considerable quantities of gold and precious stones. This island, therefore, he proposed to make the center of his future discoveries; and having erected a fort, and placed in it a small garrison, he sailed for Spain, to procure necessary reinforcements for establishing his infant colony, and completing his discoveries.

The Spanish court was then at Barcelona, which he had entered amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the Americans, arrayed in the gold, the arms, and ornaments, of the New World just discovered. He had the honour of presenting to the king and queen, in the presence of the whole court, a particular account of his discoveries, and received the universal applause of the public.

But regardless of honours, the prosecution of his main design engrossed the attention of Columbus; and as his late success had obviated former prejudices, a fleet of 17 sail was immediately equipped, with all necessities for conquest or discovery, and 1500 men embarked, among whom were some of the best families in Spain. Thus prepared, he set sail a second time, in September 1493, with an ample commission, as governor of all the countries he should discover.

On his arrival at Hispaniola, he found the fort he had erected demolished, and most of the Spaniards murdered. It appeared upon examination, that they had violated the laws of decency and justice in their behaviour towards the natives, to whose resentment they had therefore fallen victims. Columbus, however, found means to conciliate the minds of the Indians, which being effected, he chose a more commodious station for his colony, erected stronger fortifications than the former, encouraged agriculture, and exerted every effort for the establishment of the colony.

In his first voyage he had touched at Cuba; but whether it was an island, or part of some extensive continent, could not then be ascertained; therefore, to determine this was now his grand object. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, he found a multitude of small islands, most of them pleasant, and well inhabited. This archipelago he called *Jardin de la Reyna*, the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his benefactress Queen Isabella. In this voyage he discovered the Island of Jamaica; and, after a series of the greatest dangers and distress, put into Hispaniola, without accomplishing his grand design respecting Cuba.

But as there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds for accusation against such as are employed in the execution of extensive and complicated plans, thro' the base insinuation of his enemies, an officer was dispatched from Spain, whose presence demonstrated to

Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, to obviate the calumnies of his enemies.

Having surmounted these obstacles, he set out, in 1498, on a third expedition, still more important than the former. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless hardships from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, he discovered the continent of America. The first land he made was the Island of Trinidad, on the coast of Guiana. After passing this island, and two others lying at the mouth of the river Oronoko, the admiral was surprized at finding his ship agitated by a dreadful conflict of waves, occasioned between the tide of the sea, and the rapid current of that immense river. Intrepidly pursuing his course, he soon perceived that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly, that no island could supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied, in some measure, with this discovery, he yielded to the cries of his distressed crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of the passage he landed at several places, and traded with the inhabitants for gold and pearl.

In a subsequent voyage, being the fourth, Columbus discovered all the coast of Terra Firma to the Isthmus of Darien, where he hoped to have found a passage into the South Sea. In this he was disappointed, but he was not so in the other part of his project; for every where, as he advanced, he became more sensible of the value of his discoveries on the continent. He found a people more civilized, and more abounding in gold, than the islanders with whom he had been accustomed.

The success of Columbus roused a spirit of discovery, and adventurers in divers parts of Europe, stimulated by a thirst for gold, equipped ships at their own expence. The most remarkable of these was Amerigo Vesputio, a merchant of Florence, who sailed to the southern continent of America, and being a man of address, found means to acquire the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now inspired by the name, for the glory of the discovery is awarded by the whole world to Columbus.

Such, however, were the machinations of malice and envy, and such the effect of the calumny of his enemies at the court of Spain, in depreciating the merits of this great man, that he was sent for to Europe ignominiously loaded with fetters. The court of Spain, however, on his arrival, ordered him to be set at liberty, and disavowed the proceeding. Columbus retired in disgust to Valladolid, where he died in 1506, after having rendered such important services to mankind, as will transmit his name with honour to the latest posterity.

Succeeding adventurers pursued no form or plan in their undertakings, gold being their object, to which they followed fortune wherever she led them. They contributed, however, to augment the power and riches of the Spanish monarchy, though at the expence of the blood of millions. Thus the kings of Spain, without any exertion of policy, or the least public charge, were, by private adventurers and their subjects, put in possession of a greater, and more wealthy territory, than ever the most renowned conquerors had obtained by their valour or their wisdom. The conquest is the more extraordinary for that it was effected in the time in which it was effected; for, from the departure of Columbus in 1492, to the entire subjugation of Chili, which happened in 1541, several colonies and kingdoms were brought to submit to the Spanish yoke. We shall point out by whom, and the manner in which these exploits were performed, under the sanction of their respective country, and after having treated of America in general, begin with the discoveries, dated from the departure of our British Columbus, *Captain Cook*.

C H A P. II.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS vast track, frequently denominated the New World, extends from latitude 78 degrees north, to latitude 56 degrees south, that is 134 degrees, which, taken in a strait line, amounts to 8040 miles in length. Its breadth is various, being, in some places, 3690 miles, and in others not above 60 or 70. It forms a part of both hemispheres, and boasts all the different climates of the earth. It is bounded on the north by unknown lands, on the south by the Southern Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the Great Pacific Ocean. By means of these seas it carries on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world.

America, generally considered, consists of two extensive continents, joined together by a narrow neck of land called the Isthmus of Darien, and distinguished by the appellations of North and South. A great variety of islands are scattered on both sides of America. Several on the north-west coast were discovered by *Captain Cook*. On a large gulph, formed by the coasts of the northern and southern continents, and those of the Isthmus of Darien, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, and most of them fertile. They are called the West Indies, and will, as well as all the rest, be described in their proper order.

Though America is not, in general, a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world. In South America the Andes run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. They extend from the Isthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan, divide the southern parts of America, and run a length of between 4 and 5000 English miles. In North America are several lofty and extensive chains, the principal of which are called the Allegany or Appalachian mountains.

North America is watered by many rivers, the most remarkable of which will be described in their respective provinces. The river Mississippi, rising from unknown sources, runs a prodigious course from north to south. There are five great lakes, which, communicating with each other, afford a most advantageous inlet for commerce. Many parts are, indeed, so intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that numbers of planters may be said to have each an harbour at his own door.

South America has three of the largest rivers in the world, the river of the Amazons, the river Plata, and the river Oronoko.

A country of such prodigious extent as America on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates.

It is very remarkable that the climates of North America are colder, by many degrees, than any of the countries in the same latitude in Europe. Thus New Britain, which is nearly in the same latitude with Great Britain, is almost insupportably cold to an European. The greatest part of the frozen country of Newfoundland, the Bay of St. Lawrence, and Cape Breton, lie opposite to the coast of France. Nova Scotia and New England are in the same latitude as the Bay of Biscay. New York and Pennsylvania lie opposite to Spain and Portugal. Hence the coldest winds of North America blow from the north and the west, as they do here from the north and east.

If we except the most northern and southern parts, which are naturally cold and barren, the rest produce, in abundance, most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and woods, to be met with in the other part of the world, and some of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. America also produces

diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones. To these may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use.

Sheep, goats, cows, asses, and horses, were not found here upon the first landing of the Europeans, but having been brought in plenty, increased so fast in fertile pastures, as to afford an ample supply.

Here is a vast variety of birds, surpassing all that are to be found in any other part of the world, for beauty, shape, and colour, which will be described in their proper places.

The seas, lakes, and rivers, abound with the greatest plenty and variety of fish.

Before the arrival of the Europeans, the natives of America had arts of their own. They had some notion of painting, and also formed pictures by the beautiful arrangement of feathers of all colours; and in some parts erected stately buildings. Though the use of iron was unknown, they polished precious stones, cut down trees, and made not only small canoes, but boats of considerable bulk. Their hatchets were headed with a sharp flint; and of flints they made knives. Thus at the arrival of the Europeans, they presented a lively picture of the state of mankind in the earliest ages.

America is now divided between the Spanish, English, Portuguese, and the United States. The French and Dutch have, indeed, settlements in South America, called Guiana and Surinam, but these are of little importance. They have also colonies in North America. The Indians are in quiet possession of many large inland tracks. The Spaniards, who discovered the New World, still enjoy the largest and richest portion of it, and thence draw immense wealth.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, which derived a claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This northern country was, in general, called Newfoundland, a name now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before any attempt was made to settle a colony in it. Sir Walter Raleigh, of respectable memory, first shewed the way, by fixing the English standard in that part which he called Virginia, in honour of his royal mistress Queen Elizabeth.

The British nation had, at an immense expence, and with the loss of thousands of gallant subjects, preserved, secured, and extended its colonies so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of its empire in North America, to the northern and western sides: But, alas! these flattering prospects have been annihilated by a most unhappy contest between the mother country and the colonies, which, after a continuance of eight years, at great expence of blood and treasure, terminated in the establishment of a new republic, styled, "The Thirteen United States of America."

We propose to divide the New World into three parts:

I. NORTH AMERICA, prefixing to our account such parts, continental, insular, &c. as have been discovered, visited, or described, by *Captain Cook*.

II. WEST INDIAN and AMERICAN ISLANDS.

III. SOUTH AMERICA

C H A P.

C H A P. III.

N O R T H A M E R I C A.

Particular Parts of North America, continental, insular, &c. &c. discovered, visited and described by CAPTAIN COOK, on his third and last Voyage.

CAPTAIN COOK, with a perseverance and intrepidity peculiar to himself, explored the coast of North America till he reached to the latitude of 70 deg. 44 min. when all further attempts to proceed were frustrated by a prodigious mass of ice, which extended from continent to continent.

The most extreme point he mentions is Cape Lisburne. It is situated in the latitude of 69 deg. 5 min. north. He says it appeared to be tolerably high land, even down to the sea. In almost every other part, as our navigators advanced to the north, they had found a low coast, from which the land rose to a moderate height. The coast now before them was free from snow, except in one or two places, and had a greenish hue, but they could not discern any wood upon it.

To the southward of Cape Lisburne is a point, named by *Captain Cook* Point Mulgrave. It is situated in lat. 67 deg. 45 min. north. The land seemed to be very low near the sea, but a little farther it rose into hills of a moderate height: the whole was free from snow, and apparently destitute of wood.

The western extreme of America, hitherto known, is a point of land, which *Captain Cook* distinguished by the name of Cape Prince of Wales. It stands in the lat. of 65 deg. 46 min. north.

SLIDGE ISLAND lies in lat. 64 deg. 30 min. north, and is about 12 miles in circumference. The surface of the ground principally consists of large loose stones, covered in many places with moss, and other vegetables, of which 20 or 30 different species were observed, and most of them in flower. But not a tree or shrub was seen, either on the island, or upon the neighbouring continent. Near the beach where our people landed was a considerable quantity of wild purslane, long-wort, pease, &c. some of which they took on board for boiling. They saw several plovers, and other small birds, also a fox. They met with some decayed huts, built partly under ground. It appeared some people had been lately on the island, and it was more than probable that they often came thither, there being a beaten path from one end to the other. At a small distance from that part of the shore where our people landed they found a sledge, which induced *Captain Cook* to give the island the name of Sledge Island. It appeared to be such a one as is used by the Russians in Kamtschaka, for the purpose of conveying goods from one place to another over the snow and ice. Its construction was admirable, and its various parts were put together with great neatness, some with wooden pins, but for the most part with thongs or lashings of whalebone; in consequence of which, *Captain Cook* imagined that it was entirely the workmanship of the natives.

KING'S ISLAND, so called by *Captain Cook*, is a small island, which was descried at the distance of eight or nine leagues from the former.

CLERKE'S ISLAND, which also received its appellation from *Captain Cook*, lies in lat. 63 deg. 15 min. north. It seemed to be an island of considerable extent, in which were several hills, all connected by low ground, so that it looked at a distance like a group of islands. Near its eastern part is a little island, which is remarkable for having on it three elevated rocks. Both the greater island and this smaller one, were apparently inhabited.

GORE'S ISLAND lies in nearly the same latitude as the former. It is about 30 miles in extent, and particularly narrow at the low necks of land, by which the hills are connected. *Captain Cook* found afterwards that it was entirely unknown to the Russians, and therefore considering it as a discovery of his own, named it Gore's Island. It appeared to be barren, and destitute of inhabitants, at least our navigators saw none. Near Gore's stands a small island, whose lofty summit terminates in several pinnacle rocks, for which reason it obtained the name of PINNACLE ISLAND.

ANDERSON'S ISLAND, so called by *Captain Cook*, to perpetuate the memory of Mr. Anderson, surgeon of the Resolution, who departed this life just before the discovery of it, lies in lat. 62 deg. 34 min. north. This is the only circumstance worthy of mention concerning it.

N O R T O N ' s S O U N D.

Situation. Survey of the Country. Interview with the Natives. Articles of Barter. Divers Incidents. Persons Dressed, Habitations, Vegetable Productions, &c.

THIS inlet, to which *Captain Cook* gave the name of Norton's Sound, in honour of Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards Lord Grantley, lies between the latitudes of 64 and 65 deg. north. The bay wherein the ships lay at anchor is situated on the south-east side of it, and by the natives denominated Chacktoole. It is not a very good station, nor is an harbour to be met with in all this sound.

Captain Cook, at first sight, imagined this spot of land to be two islands, but afterwards found that it was a peninsula connected with the continent by a low isthmus, on each side of which a bay is formed by the coast.

Having cast anchor at about a league's distance from the point of the peninsula, to which spot the appellation of Cape Denbigh was given, they observed several the natives on the peninsula, and one of them came in a small canoe. *Captain Cook* gave this man a knife and some beads, with which he appeared to be well pleased. Our people made signs to him to bring them some provisions, upon which he instantly quitted the bay and paddled towards the shore. Happening to meet another man coming off, who had two dried salmon, he got them from him; and when he returned to the ship, he refused to give them to any body except *Captain Cook*. Some of our people fancied that he asked him under the name of *capitaine*, but in this they were perhaps mistaken. Others of the inhabitants came soon afterwards, and gave them a few dried fish, in exchange for such trifles as they had to barter with. They shewed no dislike to tobacco, but were more desirous of knives.

Mr. Gore was dispatched to the peninsula, to procure wood and water; of the former of which articles the people observed great plenty upon the beach. At the same time a boat from each of the ships was sent round the bay; and at three o'clock, the freshening at north-east, they weighed anchor, and endeavoured to work further in: but that was found to be impracticable, by reason of the ice, which extended entirely round the bay, to the distance of upwards of two miles from the shore.

Engraved for BANKES'S New System of Geography, Published by the Kings Royal Licence.



A New & Accurate
CHART
of the WESTERN or
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Drawn from the most
approved Modern Maps &c
By Tho^s Bowen
1788.

The map depicts the Atlantic Ocean with detailed coastlines of North America (including Labrador, Canada, and the United States), Europe (including Great Britain, Ireland, France, Spain, Portugal, and the Mediterranean Sea), and Africa (including the West and Central coasts). Numerous islands and archipelagos are labeled, such as the Azores, Canary Islands, Cape Verde Islands, and the Caribbean Islands. The map also shows the Tropic of Cancer and the Equator. A compass rose is located in the lower center of the map.

Captain Cook went ashore, and took a walk into the country, which, in those parts where there was no wood, abounded with heath, and other plants, several of which had plenty of berries, all ripe. Scarce a single plant was in flower. The underwood, such as birch, alders, and willows, occasioned walking to be very troublesome among the trees, which were all spruce, and none of which exceeded seven or eight inches in diameter; but some were observed lying on the beach, that were above twice that size. All the drift-wood seen in these northern parts was fir.

A family of the natives came near the spot where our people were occupied in taking off wood. The Captain saw only the husband and wife, and their child, besides a fourth person, who was the most deformed cripple he had ever seen. The husband was nearly blind; and neither he or his wife were such well-looking people as many of those whom he had met with on this coast. Both of them had their lower lips perforated; and they were in possession of some glass beads, resembling those that had been seen before among their neighbours. Iron was the article that pleased them most. For four knives, which had been formed out of an old iron hoop, the Captain obtained from them near 400 pounds weight of fish, that had been lately caught by them. Some of these were trout, and others were, with respect to size and taste, somewhat between a herring and a mullet. The Captain gave a few beads to the child, who was a female; upon which the mother immediately burst into tears, then the father, next after him the cripple, and at last, to add the finishing stroke to the concert, the child herself. This, however, was not of long duration.

Lieutenant King had before been in company with the same family. His account of this interview is to the following purport: While he attended the wooding party, a canoe, filled with natives approached, out of which an elderly man and woman (the husband and wife above mentioned) came ashore. Mr. King presented a small knife to the woman, and promised to give her a much larger one in exchange for some fish. She made signs to him to follow her. After he had proceeded with them about a mile, the man fell down as he was crossing a stony beach, and happened to cut his foot very much. This occasioned Mr. King to stop; upon which the woman pointed to her husband's eyes, which were covered with a thick whitish film. He afterwards kept close to his wife, who took care to apprize him of the obstacles in his way. The woman had a child on her back, wrapped up in the hood of her jacket. After walking about two miles they arrived at an open skin-boat, which was turned on one side, the convex part towards the wind, and was made to serve for the habitation of this family. Mr. King now performed a remarkable operation on the man's eyes. He was first desired to hold his breath, then to breathe on the distempered eyes, and afterwards to spit on them. The woman then took both the hands of Mr. King, and pressing them to the man's stomach, held them there for some time, while she recounted some melancholy history respecting her family; sometimes pointing to her husband, sometimes to her child, and at other times to the cripple, who was related to her. Mr. King purchased all the fish they had, which consisted of excellent salmon, salmon-trout, and mullet. These fish were faithfully delivered to the person he sent for them.

The woman was short and squat, and her visage was plump and round. She wore a jacket made of deer-skin, with a large hood, and had on a pair of wide boots. She was punctured from the lip to the chin. Her husband was well made, and about five feet two inches in height. His hair was black and short, and he had but one beard. His complexion was of a light copper colour. He had two holes in his lower lip, in which, however, he had no ornaments. The teeth of both of them were black, and appeared as if they had been filed down level with the gums.

No. 43.

As doubts were still entertained whether the coast upon which they now were belonged to an island, or to the continent of America, Lieutenant King was dispatched by *Captain Cook*, with two boats, well manned and armed, to make such a search as might tend to remove all difference of opinion on the subject. He was instructed to proceed towards the north as far as the extreme point seen before, or a little further, if he should find it necessary; to land there, and from the heights endeavour to discover whether the land he was then upon, imagined to be the island of Alaschka, was really an island, or was connected with the land to the eastward, supposed to be the American continent.

After the departure of Lieutenant King, several of the natives came off in canoes, and gave the crew some dried salmon in exchange for trifling articles. Early the next morning nine men, each in a separate canoe, paid them a visit, with the sole view of gratifying their curiosity. They approached the ship with caution, and drawing up abreast of each other, under her stern, favoured them with a song; while one of their number made many ludicrous motions with his hands and body, and another beat upon a sort of drum. There was nothing savage either in the song or the gestures with which it was accompanied. There seemed to be no difference either with respect to size or features between these people, and those on the other northerly parts of the coast. Their dress, which chiefly consisted of the skins of deer, was made after the same mode; and they had adopted the practice of perforating their lower lips, and affixing ornaments to them.

The habitations of these Americans were situated close to the beach. They consist merely of a sloping roof, without any side walls, formed of logs, and covered with earth and grass. The floor is likewise laid with logs. The entrance is at one end, and the fireplace just within it. A small hole is made near the door of the hut, for the purpose of letting out the smoke.

The berries found here by the party that went on shore for brooms and spruce, were huckle-berries, heath-berries, partridge-berries, and wild currant-berries. *Captain Cook* also went ashore, and took a walk over part of the peninsula. He met with very good grass in several places, and scarcely observed a single spot on which some vegetable was not growing. The low land, by which this peninsula is united to the continent, abounds with narrow creeks, and likewise with ponds of water, several of which were at this time frozen over. There were numbers of bustards and geese, but they were so shy, that it was impossible to get within musket-shot of them. Some snipes were also seen; and on the higher grounds were partridges of two species. Where there was wood musketos were numerous. Some of the officers, who went further into the country than the Captain did, met with some of the natives of both sexes, who treated them with civility and kindness.

It was the opinion of *Captain Cook* that this peninsula had been an island in some distant period; for there were marks of the sea having formerly flowed over the isthmus; and even at present it appeared to be kept out by a bank of sand, stones, and wood, which the waves had thrown up. It was manifest, from this bank, that the land here encroached upon the sea; and it was not difficult to trace its gradual formation.

Lieutenant King returned from his expedition about four days after he left the ship. The crews of the boats rowed without intermission towards the land for the space of a day. They then set their sails, and stood across the bay which the coast forms to the westward of Bald Head. They afterwards made use of their oars, and had got within two miles of Bald-Head, under the lee of the high land. At that time all the men in the boat belonging to the *Resolution*, except two, were so oppressed with fatigue and sleep, that Mr. King's utmost endeavours to make them put on were ineffectual. They were at length so far exhausted as to drop their oars, and fall asleep at the bottom of the boat. In consequence

consequence of this Mr. King, and two gentlemen who were with him, were obliged to lay hold of the oars; and they landed, a little after three o'clock, between Bald-Head and a point that projects to the eastward.

Mr. King, upon his landing, ascended the heights, from which he could see the two coasts join, and that the inlet terminated in a small creek or river, before which there were banks of sand or mud, and in every part shoal water. The land, for some distance towards the north, was low and swampy; then it rose in hills; and the perfect junction of those, on each side of the inlet, was traced without the least difficulty.

From the elevated situation in which Mr. King took his survey of the sound, he could discern many spacious vallies, with rivers flowing through them, well wooded, and bounded by hills of a moderate height. One of the rivers, towards the north-west, seemed to be considerable; and he was inclined to suppose, from its direction, that it discharged itself into the sea at the head of the bay. Some of his people, penetrating beyond this into the country, found the trees to be of a larger size the further they proceeded.

The weather being fine afforded an opportunity of making a great number of lunar observations, the result of which gave 197 deg. 13 min. east, as the longitude of the anchoring place on the western side of the sound; while its latitude was 64 deg. 31 min. north. With respect to the tides, the night flood rose two or three feet, and the day flood was scarcely perceivable.

Captain Cook was now perfectly convinced that Mr. Stæhlin's map was extremely erroneous, and that the continent of America was the very space which that gentleman had imagined to be the Island of Alaschka.

Captain Cook thought it now high time to quit these northerly regions, and retire to some place for the winter, where he might obtain provisions and refreshments. He did not consider Petropaulowska, or the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, in Kamtschatka, as likely to furnish a sufficient supply. He had likewise other reasons for not going thither at present; the principal of which was his great unwillingness to remain inactive for six or seven months, which would have been the consequence of passing the winter in any of these northern countries. He at length concluded that no situation was so convenient as the Sandwich Islands. To them, therefore, he formed a resolution of repairing. But a supply of water being necessary before he could execute that design, he determined, with a view of procuring this essential article, to search the coast of America for a harbour, by proceeding along it to the southward. If he should not meet with success in that search, his intention was to reach Samanhoodha, which was appointed for the place of rendezvous in case the ships should happen to separate.

STUART'S ISLAND lies in the latitude of 63 deg. 35 min. north, and is six or seven leagues in circumference. Though some parts of it are of a moderate height, yet, in general, it is low, with some rocks off the western part. Some drift-wood was observed on the shore, but not a single tree was seen.

The greatest part of the coast of the continent is low land, but they perceived high land up the country. It forms a point opposite this island, which was distinguished by the name of Cape Stephens, and is situated in the latitude of 63 deg. 33 min. north, and in the longitude of 197 deg. 41 min. east.

Before they reached Stuart's Island they passed two little islands, situate between them and the main land; and as they ranged along the coast, several of the natives made their appearance upon the shore, and, by signs, seemed to invite them to approach.

ROUND ISLAND, so denominated by *Captain Cook* on account of its figure, lies in the latitude of 58 deg. 37 min. north, and is seven miles distant from the continent.

BARREN ISLES; so called from the nakedness of their appearance, are situated in latitude 59 deg. north. They are a group of high islands and rocks, and unconnected with any other land.

Near these islands was perceived a very lofty promontory, whose elevated summit appeared above the clouds, forming two very high mountains. *Captain Cook* named this promontory Cape Douglas, in honour of Doctor Douglas, now Bishop of Carlisle.

K A Y E ' s I S L A N D.

THIS island, discovered by *Captain Cook*, lies in latitude 59 deg. 49 min. north. It does not exceed 12 leagues in length, nor in breadth above a league and a half in any part of it. The south-west point is a naked rock, considerably elevated above the land within it. There is also a high rock lying off it, which, when seen in some particular directions, has the appearance of a ruinous castle. This island terminates towards the sea in bare sloping cliffs, with a beach consisting of large pebbles, intermixed in some places with a clayey sand. The cliffs are composed of a blueish stone or rock, and are, except in a few parts, in a soft or mouldering state. Some parts of the shore are interrupted by small vallies and gullies, in each of which a rivulet or torrent rushes down with a considerable degree of impetuosity, though, perhaps, only furnished from the snow, and lasting no longer than till the whole is dissolved. These vallies are filled with pine-trees; and they also abound in other parts of the island, which, indeed, is covered, as it were, with a broad girdle of wood. The trees, however, are far from being of an extraordinary growth, few of them seeming to be larger than what a person might grasp round with his arms, and their general height being 40 or 50 feet; so that they would be of no great service for shipping, except as materials for making top-gallant-masts, and other small things. The pine trees appeared to be all of one species; and neither the Canadian pine, or cypress, was to be seen.

Among the trees were some currant and hawberry bushes, a yellow-flowered violet, and the leaves of other plants not then in flower, particularly one which was supposed by the naturalists to be the *heracleum* of Linnaeus.

A crow was seen flying about the wood: two or three white headed eagles, like those of Nootka, were also observed; besides another species equally large, which had a white breast. *Captain Cook* likewise saw, in his passage from the ship to the shore, a number of fowls sitting on the water, or flying about, the principal of which were gulls, burres, shags, ducks, or large petrels, divers, and quebrantahueffes. The divers were of two sorts; one very large, whose colour was black, with a white belly and breast; the other of a smaller size, with a longer and more pointed bill. The ducks were also of two species; one brownish, with a dark blue or blackish head or neck; the other smaller, and of a dirty black colour. The shags were large and black, having a white spot behind the wings. The gulls were of the common sort, flying in flocks. There was also a single bird flying about, apparently of the gull kind, whose colour was a snowy white, with some black along part of the upper side of its wings. At the place where the party landed, a fox came from the verge of the wood, and cying them with little emotion, walked leisurely on without manifesting any signs of fear. He was not of a large size, and his colour was of a reddish yellow. Two or three small foxes were likewise seen near the shore; but no traces were discovered of inhabitants having ever been in the island.

On a small eminence near the shore, *Captain Cook* left, at the foot of a tree, a bottle, containing a paper on which the names of the ships, and the date of the discovery, were inscribed. He also enclosed by order two-penny pieces of English coin, which, with many others, he had been furnished with by Dr. King.

Engraved for BANKES'S. *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*



View of Long Corner Cove, in Prince William's Sound.



Inhabitants of Norton's Sound, and their Habitations.

of Lincoln; and, in testimony of his esteem for that gentleman, distinguished the island by the name of Kave's Island.

He also called a spacious inlet, about three leagues distant from this island, Cape Hinchinbroke. Having cast anchor under this cape, Mr. Gore was dispatched in a boat, in order to shoot some birds that might serve for food. He had scarcely arrived when about 20 of the natives appeared in two large canoes, upon which he returned to the ships, and they followed him. They were unwilling, however, to venture along-side, but kept at a distance, shouting aloud, and clapping and extending their arms alternately. They then began a kind of song. Their heads were strewed with feathers; and one of them held out a white garment, which it was supposed they intended as a token of friendship; while another, for near a quarter of an hour, stood up in the canoe, entirely naked, with his arms extended like a cross, and motionless. Their canoes were constructed upon a different plan from those our people had hitherto seen. The frame consisted of slender laths, and the outside was formed of the skins of seals, or other animals of a similar kind. Though our people returned their signs of amity, and endeavoured, by the most expressive gestures, to encourage them to come along-side, they were unable to prevail upon them. Some of our people also repeated several of the common words that they had heard in the adjacent parts, but they did not appear to understand them. After they had received some presents that were thrown to them, they retired towards the shore, intimating, by signs, that they would return the next morning. They accordingly came off in five or six canoes, but as the ships were under sail, they could not reach, though they followed them for some time.

PRINCE WILLIAM'S SOUND.

SECTION I.

Situation. Reception from the Natives. Their Appearance and Behaviour.

THIS inlet on the coast, distinguished by Captain Cook under the name of Prince William's Sound, is in the latitude of 59 deg. 33 min. north. He also gave the place where the ships Resolution and Discovery took up their station, the appellation of Snug Corner Bay.

When our people first entered the bay, three of the natives came off in two canoes, two men in one, and one in the other, being the number that each canoe could carry. The men had each a stick of the length of about three feet, with the large feathers, or wings of birds, fastened to it. These they frequently held up, probably as tokens of peace. The treatment these three received induced many others to visit the ships, in both great and small canoes. Some of them ventured on board the Resolution, though not before some of our people had stepped into their boats. Among those who came on board was a middle-aged man, who was afterwards found to be the chief. His dress was made of the skin of the sea-otter, and he had on his head a cap, embellished with sky-blue glass beads. He appeared to value these much more than our white glass beads. Any kind of beads, however, seemed to be in high estimation among these people, who readily gave in exchange for them whatever they had, even their sea-otter skins.

Iron was a great object, but they absolutely rejected small bits, and wanted pieces nine or ten inches long at least, and of the breadth of three or four fingers. They obtained but little of that article, as, by this time, it was become rather scarce. The points of some of their spears were of this metal, others were of copper, and a few were of bone; of which last the points of their arrows, darts, &c. were formed.

The chief could not be prevailed upon to venture below the upper deck, nor did he and his companions continue long on board. While they were on board it was necessary to watch them narrowly, as they soon manifested an inclination for thieving. At length, when they had been three or four hours along-side the Resolution, they all quitted her, and repaired to the Discovery, which ship none of them had before been on board of, except one man, who came from her at this very time, and immediately returned to her, in company with the others.

The natives, soon after quitting the Discovery, made their way towards the boat that was employed in founding. The officer who was in her observing their approach, returned to the ship, and all the canoes followed him. The crew of the boat had no sooner repaired on board, leaving in her, by way of guard, two of their number, than several of the natives stepped into her, some of whom presented their spears before the two men, while others loosed the rope by which she was fastened to the ship, and the rest were so daring as to attempt to tow her away. But the moment they saw our people were preparing to oppose them, they let her go, stepped out of her into their own boats, and made signs to persuade them to lay down their arms.

The man already mentioned as having conducted his countrymen from the Resolution to the Discovery, had first been on board of the latter, where looking down all the hatchways, and observing no one except the officer of the watch, and one or two others, he doubtless imagined that she might be plundered with ease, particularly as she was stationed at some distance from the Resolution. It was unquestionably with this intent that the natives went off to her. Several of them went on board without the least ceremony, and drawing their knives, made signs to the officer, and the other people upon deck, to keep off, and began to search for plunder. The first thing they laid hold of was the rudder of one of the boats, which they immediately threw overboard to those of their party who had continued in the canoes. But before they had time to find another object that struck their fancy, the ship's crew were alarmed, and many of them, armed with cutlasses, came upon deck. On observing this, the plunderers all sneaked off into their canoes, with evident marks of indifference.

From the above circumstances it may reasonably be inferred, that these people were not acquainted with fire-arms; for had they known any thing of their effect, they would by no means have ventured to attempt carrying off a boat from under a ship's guns, in the face of upwards of an hundred men; for most of the Resolution's people were looking at them at the very instant of their making the attempt. However, they were left as ignorant, in this particular, as they were found; for they neither saw or heard a musket fired, except at birds.

SECTION II.

Persons, Dress, Canoes, Weapons, Utensils, Food, Language, &c.

THREE natives seen by our voyagers were, in general, of a middling stature, though many of them were under it. They were square, or strong-chested, with short thick necks, and large broad visages, which were, for the most part, rather flat. The most disproportioned part of their bodies appeared to be their heads, which were of great magnitude. Their teeth were of a tolerable whiteness, broad, well set, and equal in size. Their noses had full round points, turned up at the tips; and their eyes, though not small, were scarcely proportioned to the largeness of their faces. They had black hair, which was strong, straight, and thick. Their beards were, in general, thin, or deficient; but the hairs growing about the lips of those who had them,

them, were bristly or stiff, and often of a brownish colour; and some of the elderly men had large, thick, strait beards.

Very few, however, could be said to be handsome, though their countenances, in general, indicated frankness, vivacity, and good nature; yet some of them shewed a reserve and sullenness in their aspect. The faces of some of the women were agreeable; and many of them, but principally the younger ones, might easily be distinguished from the other sex, by the superior delicacy of their features. The complexion of some of the females, and of the children, was white, without any mixture of red. Many of the men, whom our people saw naked, had rather a swarthy cast, which was scarcely the effect of any stain, as it is not their custom to paint their bodies.

The men, women, and children, of this sound, are all clothed in the same manner. Their ordinary dress is a sort of close frock, or rather robe, which sometimes reaches only to the knees, but generally down to the ankles. It has, at the upper part, a hole just sufficiently large to admit the head, with sleeves reaching to the wrist. These frocks are composed of the skins of various animals, such as the grey fox, racoon, pine-martin, sea-otter, seal, &c. and they are commonly worn with the hairy side outwards. Some of the natives have their frocks made of the skins of fowls, with only the down left on them, which they glue upon other substances. One or two were seen with woollen garments. At the seams, where the different skins are sewed together, they are usually adorned with fringes or tassels of narrow thongs, cut out of the same skins. There is a sort of cape or collar to a few of them, and some have a hood; but the other is the most customary form, and appears to constitute their whole dress in fair weather. They put over this, when it is rainy, another frock, made with some degree of ingenuity from the intestines of whales, or of some other large animal, prepared with such skill, as to resemble, in a great measure, our gold-beaters leaf. It is formed so as to be drawn tight round the neck; and its sleeves extend down to the wrist, round which they are fastened with a string. When they are in their canoes, they draw the skirts of this frock over the rim of the hole in which they sit, so that the water is prevented from entering. At the same time it keeps the men dry upwards; for no water can penetrate through it. It is apt to crack or break, if it is not constantly kept moist. This frock, as well as the common one made of skins, is nearly similar to the dress of the natives of Greenland. Some of them wear a kind of skin stockings, reaching half way up their thighs. Few of them are without mittens for their hands, formed from the skins of bears paws. Those who wear any thing on their heads resemble, in this particular, the people of Nootka, having high, truncated, conical caps, composed of straw, and sometimes of wood.

The hair of the men is commonly cropped round the forehead and neck, but the females suffer it to grow long. The greatest part of them tie a lock of it on the crown, while a few club it behind, after our method. Both the men and women perforate their ears with several holes, about the outer and lower part of the edge, wherein they suspend small bunches of beads. They also perforate the *septum* of the nose, through which they often thrust the quill feathers of birds, or little bending ornaments, made of a tubulous shelly substance, strung on a stiff cord, of the length of three or four inches, which give them a ridiculous and grotesque appearance. But the most extraordinary ornamental fashion, and which is adopted by some of the natives of both sexes, is their having the under lip cut quite thro' lengthways, rather below the swelling part. This incision frequently exceeds two inches in length, and, either by its natural retraction while the wound is still fresh, or by the repetition of some artificial management, assumes the appearance and shape of lips, and becomes sufficiently large to admit the tongue through.

This happened to be the case when a person, with his under lip thus slit, was first seen by one of our sailors who immediately exclaimed, that the man had two mouths, which, indeed, it greatly resembled. They fix in this artificial mouth a flat, narrow kind of ornament, made principally out of a solid shell or bone, cut into small narrow pieces, like teeth, almost down to the base, or thick part, which has, at each end, a projecting bit, that serves to support it when put into the divided lip, the cut part then appearing outwards. Some of them only perforate the lower lip into separate holes, on which occasion the ornament consists of the same number of distinct shelly studs, the points of which are thrust through these holes, and their heads appear within the lip, not unlike another row of teeth under their natural ones.

Besides the native ornaments of these people, were observed among them many beads of European manufacture, chiefly of a pale blue colour, which are hung in their ears, or about their caps, or are joined to their lip ornaments, which have a little hole drilled in each of the points to which they are fastened, and others to them, till they sometimes even hang as low as the point of the chin. In this last case, however, they cannot remove them with such facility; for, with respect to their own lip-ornaments, they can take them out with their tongue at pleasure. They likewise wear bracelets of beads, made of a shelly substance; or others of a cylindrical form, composed of a substance resembling amber. They are, in general, so fond of ornaments of some kind or other, that they fix any thing in their perforated lip; for one of them appeared with two iron nails projecting like prongs from it; and another one attempted to put a large brass button into it.

The men often paint their faces of a black colour, and of a bright red, and sometimes of a blueish or leaden hue, but not in any regular figure. The women puncture or stain the chin with black, that comes to a point in each of their cheeks; a custom similar to which is in vogue among the Greenland females. Their bodies are not painted, which may probably be owing to the scarcity of materials for that purpose; all the colours which they brought for sale being in very small quantities. *Captain Cook* observes, upon the whole, that in no country he had seen savages who take more pains than these do to ornament, or rather to disfigure, their persons.

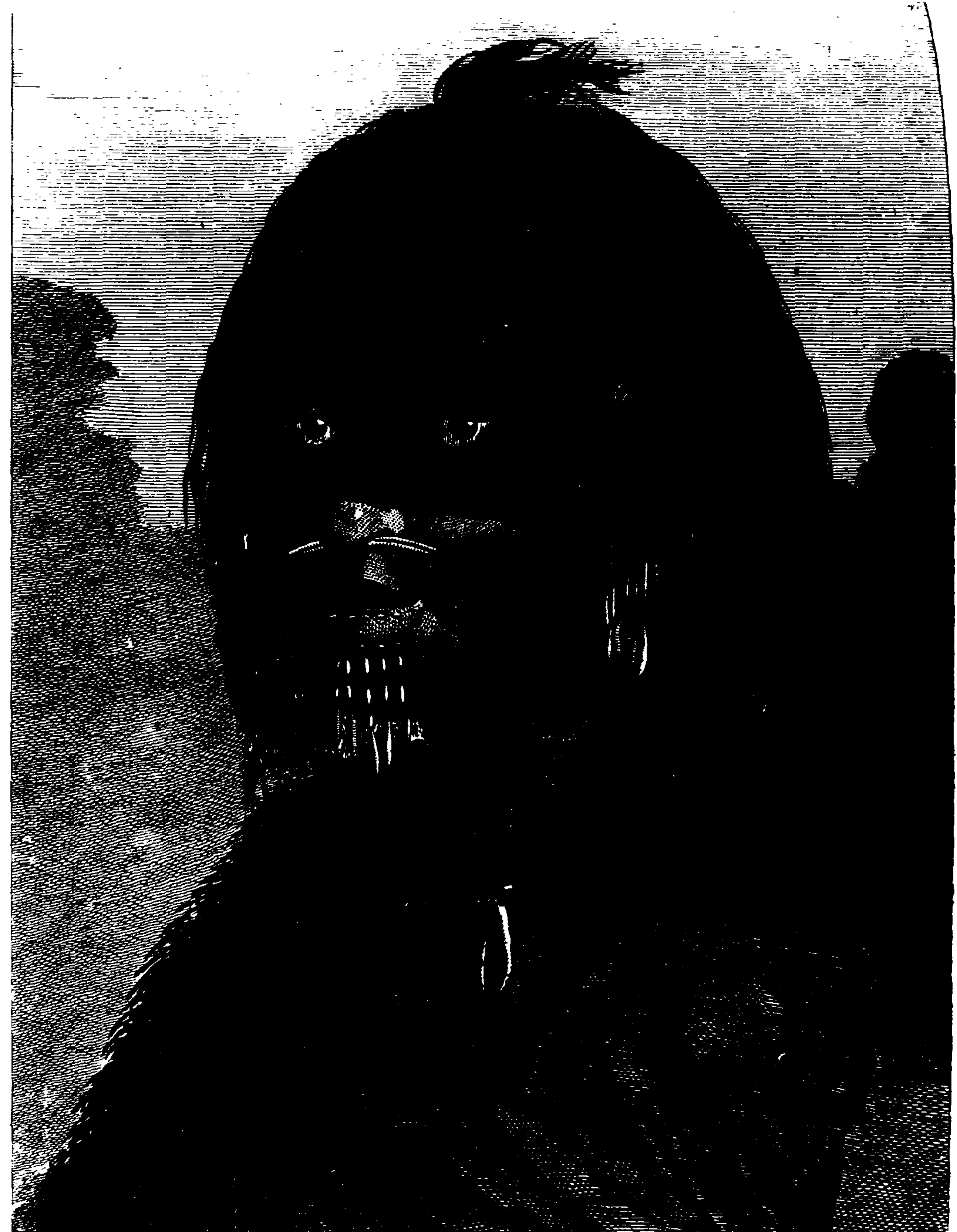
Their canoes are of two sorts, the one large and open, the other small and covered. The larger resemble, in their construction, the great or woman's boat of Greenland, with no other difference than in the form of the head and stern, particularly of the former, which is somewhat like that of the head. The framing consists of slender pieces of wood; and the outside is composed of the skins of seals, or other sea animals stretched over the wood. The smaller canoes are made of the same form and materials with those of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders, and curved on the fore part like the head of a violin.

Many of their spears are headed with iron, and their arrows are generally pointed with bone. Their darts are thrown by means of a piece of wood about a foot long, with a small groove in the middle, which receives the dart: at the bottom is a hole for the reception of one finger, which enables them to grasp the piece of wood much firmer, and to throw with more force. For defensive armour they have a sort of breastplate or coat of mail, formed of laths, fastened together with sinews, which renders it very flexible, though it is so close as not to admit a dart or arrow. It serves only to cover the trunk of the body, and may not improperly be compared to the flays of women.

Our voyagers had not an opportunity of seeing any of the habitations of these people, as none of them dwelt in the bay where our ships anchored, or where any of them landed. With respect to their domestic utensils, they brought, in their canoes, to the ships, a great number of oval wooden dishes, rather shallow; and others of a



A MAN of PRINCE WILLIAM'S SOUND.



A WOMAN of PRINCE WILLIAM'S SOUND. Page sculp

cylindrical form, considerably deeper. The sides consisted of one piece, bent round, after the manner of our chip boxes, but thick, and neatly fastened with thongs; the bottoms being fixed in with small pegs of wood. Others were somewhat smaller, and of a more elegant figure, not unlike a large oval butter-boat, without any handle, but shallower. These were composed of a piece of wood, or some horny substance, and were sometimes neatly carved. They had a number of little square bags, made of the same gut with their exterior frocks, curiously adorned with very small red feathers interwoven with it, in which were contained several very fine sinews, and bundles of small cord, made out of them, plaited with extraordinary ingenuity. They likewise brought some wooden models of their canoes, chequered baskets, wrought so closely as to hold water, and a considerable number of small images, of the length of four or five inches, either of wood, or stuffed, which were covered with a piece of fur, and embellished with quill feathers, with hair fixed on their heads. Our people could not determine whether these were intended merely as children's toys, or were held in veneration, as representing their deceased friends and relations, and applied to some superstitious purpose. They have many instruments formed of two or three hoops, or concentric pieces of wood, having a cross-bar fixed in the middle, by which they are held. To these they fix a number of dried barnacle-shells, with threads, which, when shaken, produce a loud noise, and thus serve the purpose of a rattle. This contrivance is probably a substitute for the rattling bird at King George's Sound.

It is uncertain with what tools their wooden utensils, frames of canoes, &c. are made, the only one observed among them being a kind of stone adze, somewhat resembling those of Otaheite, and other islands in the Pacific Ocean. They have a great quantity of iron knives, some of which are rather curved, others straight, and some very small ones, fixed in longish handles, with the blades bent upwards. They have also knives of another sort, sometimes almost two feet in length, shaped, in a great measure, like a dagger, with a ridge towards the middle. They wear these in sheaths of skins, hung by a thong round their necks, under their robe or frock. It is probable that they use them only as weapons, and that their other knives are applied to different purposes.

Upon the whole, considering the uncivilized state of the natives of this sound, their northerly situation amidst a country almost continually covered with snow, and the comparatively wretched materials they have to work with, it appears that, with respect to their skill and invention, in all manual operations, they are at least equal to any other people.

The food they were seen to eat was the flesh of some animal, either roasted or broiled, and dried fish. Some of the former, that was purchased, had the appearance of bear's flesh. They likewise eat a larger sort of fern-root, either baked, or dressed in some other method. Some of our people observed them eat freely of a substance which they imagined was the interior part of the pine bark. Their drink, in all probability, is water; for, in their canoes, they brought snow in wooden vessels, which they swallowed by mouthfuls. Their manner of eating is decent and cleanly, for they constantly took care to remove any dirt that might adhere to their food; and though they would sometimes eat the raw fat of some sea animal, they did not fail to cut it carefully into mouthfuls. Their persons were, to appearance, always clean, and their utensils, in general, were kept in excellent order, as were also their boats.

With respect to the language of the inhabitants of this sound, it appeared to our people difficult to be understood, perhaps owing to the various significations which their words bear; for they seemed frequently to use the same word on very different occasions; though it was the opinion of the speculative part of our people, that if they had had a longer intercourse with them,

this might probably have proved to be a mistake on their part.

SECTION III.

Beasts, Birds, Fish, Vegetables, and Metals, of Prince William's Sound. Conjectures whence the Natives procure Beads and Iron.

OUR voyagers could derive no other knowledge of the animals of this part of the world, than what they obtained from the skins that were brought by the natives for sale. These were chiefly of bears, common and pine martins, sea-otters, seals, racoons, small ermines, foxes, and the whitish cat or lynx. Among these various skins the most common were those of racoons, martins, and sea-otters, which constituted the ordinary dress of these people. The skins of seals and bears were also pretty common; and the former were, in general, white, beautifully spotted with black, or sometimes simply white; and many of the bears here were of a dark brown hue.

Here is the white bear, of whose skins the natives brought several pieces, and some complete skins of cubs. There is also the wolverine, or quickhatch, whose skin has very bright colours; and a larger species of ermine than the common one, varied with brown, and having scarcely any black on its tail. The skin of the head of some very large animal was likewise brought to our people, but they could not positively decide what it was; though, from the colour and shagginess of the hair, and its not resembling any land animal, they conjectured that it might be that of the male ur-line seal, or sea-bear. One of the most beautiful skins that came under their observation was that of a small animal, near a foot in length, of a brown colour on the back, with a number of obscure whitish specks, the sides being of a bluish ash colour, with a few of these specks. The tail is about a third part of the length of the body, and is covered with whitish hair. This animal is the same with that called by Mr. Stæhlin, in his account of the New Northern Archipelago, the spotted field-mouse. But whether it was really of the mouse kind, or the squirrel, could not be determined for want of an entire skin.

Of birds found here were the halcyon, or king's fisher, the shag, the white headed eagle, and the humming bird, which often flew about the ships as they lay at anchor. The water fowl seen were black sea-pies, geese, a small sort of ducks, snipes, grouse, plovers, &c. &c. There is a species of the diver peculiar to the place, and of the size of a partridge.

The chief fish brought by the natives for sale were torrk and halibut; and our people caught some sculpins about the ship, with star-fish of a purplish hue, that had sixteen or eighteen rays. The rocks were almost destitute of shell-fish; and the only other animal of this tribe observed, was a reddish crab, covered with very large spines.

Few vegetables of any kind were seen. The trees that chiefly grew about this sound were the Canadian and spruce pine, some of which were of a considerable size.

The metals seen here were iron and copper, both of which, but more particularly the former, were in such abundance, as to form the points of numbers of their lances and arrows. The ores which they made use of to paint themselves with, were a brittle, unctuous, red ochre, or iron ore; a pigment of a bright blue, and black lead. Each of these seemed to be very scarce among them. Copper these people, perhaps, procure by their own means, or, at most, it passes to them through few hands; for when our people offered any of it by way of barter, they used to express its being in sufficient plenty among them by pointing to their weapons, as if they meant to intimate, that, as they had so much for their own, there was no occasion for increasing their stock.

If, however, the natives of this inlet are furnished with European commodities by means of the intermediate traffic to the eastern coast, it is rather remarkable that they should never, in return, have supplied the more inland Indians with some of their sea-otter skins, which would undoubtedly have appeared, at some time or other, in the environs of Hudson's Bay.

The natives of this place must doubtless have received from some more civilized nation the beads and iron found among them. Our voyagers were almost certain that they were the first Europeans with whom they had ever had a direct communication; and it remained to be determined from what quarter they had procured these manufactures by intermediate conveyance. It is more than probable that they had obtained these articles through the intervention of the more inland tribes, either from the settlements about Hudson's Bay, or those on the lakes of Canada; unless the supposition can be admitted that the Russians, from Kamtschatka, have already extended their traffic to this distance; or that the natives of their most easterly islands carry on an intercourse along the coast with the inhabitants of Prince William's Sound.

There are two passages into the inlet that leads to Prince William's Sound, separated from each other by an island that extends 18 leagues in the direction of south-west and north-east, to which *Captain Cook* gave the appellation of Montague Island.

In this channel are several islands. Those situate in the entrance next the open sea are elevated and rocky. Those that are within are low; and as they were totally free from snow, and covered with wood and verdure, they were denominated Green Islands.

As *Captain Cook* was pursuing his voyage, seeing the appearance of a shoal, he came to anchor. Two canoes, with a man in each, then came off to the ship. It cost them some labour to paddle across the strong tide; and they hesitated a little before they dared venture to approach. One of them was very loquacious, but to no purpose, for the Europeans could not understand a syllable he said. While he was talking, he kept continually pointing to the shore, which was supposed to be an invitation for our people to go thither. *Captain Cook* made them a present of a few trifles, which he conveyed to them from the quarter gallery. These people strongly resembled those seen in Prince William's Sound, both in dress and person. Their canoes were also constructed in the same manner. One of these visitors seemed to have no beard, and his face was painted of a jet black: the other, who was older, was not painted, but he had a large beard, and a countenance like the common sort of people in the sound. Smoak was seen upon the flat western shore, whence it was inferred, that those lower spots were the only places inhabited.

COOK'S RIVER.

Discovery of and Country adjacent; with an Account of the Manners, Customs, Language, &c. of the Natives.

CAPTAIN COOK observed, in his progress on this coast, that the water, till he arrived at a certain spot, in the latitude of 60 deg. 8 min. retained an equal degree of saltness, both at high and low water, but here the marks of a river evidently appeared. Having anchored under a point of land, the water which was taken up was much more fresh than any our people had tasted, whence they concluded that they were in a large river, and not in a strait which had a communication with the northern seas. Having proceeded thus far, they were anxious to have stronger proofs, and therefore weighed with the flood, and drove up with the tide, having but little wind.

The tide is very considerable in this river, and greatly assists to facilitate the navigation of it. In the stream it is high water between two and three o'clock, on the days of the new and full moon; and the tide rises

between three and four fathoms. The mouth of the river being in a corner of the coast, the ocean forces the flood into it by both shores, which swells the tide to a greater height than at other parts of this coast.

As the ships were under sail, they were attended by many of the natives, in one large canoe, and several small ones. The latter had only one person on board each of them; and some of the paddles had a blade at each end. Men, women, and children, were contained in the large canoes. At some distance from the ship they exhibited, on a long pole, a kind of leathern frock which our people interpreted to be a sign of their peaceable intentions. They conveyed this frock into the ship as an acknowledgement for some trifles which *Captain Cook* had given them.

The persons, dress, and canoes of these people, resembled those of Prince William's Sound, except that the small canoes were not so large as those of the sound, and carried only one man.

Our people bartered with them for some of their fur dresses, made of the skins of animals, particularly those of sea-otters, martins, and hares. They also had a few of their darts, and a supply of salmon and halibut, for which they gave some old cloaths, beads, and pieces of iron, in exchange.

The natives were already possessed of large iron knives, and glass beads of a sky-blue colour, such as were seen among the inhabitants of Prince William's Sound. The latter, as well as those which they received from our people, they seemed to value highly. But they were particularly earnest in asking for large pieces of iron, to which they gave the name of *goone*; though with them, as well as with their neighbours in the sound, one word seemed to have many significations. Their language is certainly the same. The words *oonaka*, *keeta*, and *naema*, and a few others, which were frequently used in Prince William's Sound, were also commonly used by this new tribe. After passing about two hours between the two ships, they retired to the western shore.

Our people observed that, at the lowest ebb, the water at and near the surface of the river, was perfectly fresh; though it retained a considerable degree of saltness, if taken deeper than a foot below it. There were not only this, but many other convincing proofs of its being a river, such as thick muddy water, low shores, trees and rubbish of various kinds floating backwards and forwards with the tide. *Captain Cook* finding, from divers observations, that all the low land which he at first imagined to be an island, was one continued track, from the great river to the foot of the mountains, terminating at the south entrance of the eastern branch, he denominated that branch the river Turnagain.

Captain Cook observes, that the time spent in the discovery of this great river [called afterwards, by the direction of Lord Sandwich, *Cook's River*] ought not to be regretted, if it should hereafter prove useful to the present, or any future age. But the delay thus occasioned, was an essential loss to our voyagers, who had an object of greater magnitude in view. The season was far advanced; and it was now evident that the continent of North America extended much farther to the west than they had reason to expect from the most approved charts. *Captain Cook*, however, had the satisfaction to reflect, that if he had not examined this very large river, speculative fabricators of geography would have ventured to assert, that it had a communication with the sea to the north, or with Hudson's or Baffin's Bay to the east; and it would probably have been marked, on future maps of the world, with an appearance of precision.

Lieutenant King was sent with two armed boats, with orders from *Captain Cook* to land on the south side of the river, where he was to display the flag, and in his Majesty's name, to take possession of the country and the river. He was also ordered to bury a bottle in the earth, containing some English coin of 1772, and a paper, whereon was written the names of the ships and

and the date of the discovery. The point where our people landed was named Point Possession.

Lieutenant King having executed his orders returned on board, and gave information to *Captain Cook* of the particular incidents which had occurred on shore. He said, that on his approach to the shore, he saw 18 or 20 of the natives with their arms extended; an attitude, he supposed, meant to signify their peaceable disposition, and to convince him they were without weapons. Seeing the officer and his attendants land, and observing muskets in their hands, they were alarmed, and requested (by expressive signs) that they would lay them down. This was immediately complied with, and then our party were permitted to walk up to them, when they appeared to be very sociable and cheerful.

The natives had several dogs with them, and a few pieces of fresh salmon. A gentleman of our party purchased one of the dogs, and taking it towards the boat, immediately shot it dead. At this the natives seemed exceedingly surprized; and not thinking themselves safe in such company, walked away: but it presently appeared, that they had concealed their spears and other weapons in the bushes close behind them. The ground, according to Mr. King's account, was swampy, and the soil poor and light. It, however, produced some pines, alders, birch, and willows; some rose and currant bushes, and a little grass; but there was not a plant in flower to be seen.

The ships having weighed, stood to the westward, and there anchoring, were visited by several of the natives, in canoes, who bartered their skins, and afterwards parted with their garments, many of them returning perfectly naked. Among others they brought a great quantity of the skins of white rabbits and red foxes, but only two or three of those of sea-otters. Our people also purchased some pieces of halibut and salmon. They gave iron the preference to every thing offered them in exchange.

The lip ornaments were less in fashion among them than at Prince William's Sound; but those which pass through the nose were more frequent, and, in general, considerably longer. They had, likewise, more embroidered work on their garments, quiver, knife-cases, and many other articles.

Plying down the river, and casting anchor about two miles below a spot called by *Captain Cook* the Bluff Point, the ships were again visited by many of the natives, who attended them all the morning; and, indeed, their company was highly acceptable, as they brought with them a quantity of fine salmon, which they exchanged for some trifles. Several hundred weight of it was procured for the two ships, and the greatest part of it split, and ready for drying.

The mountains now, for the first time after the ships entered the river, were free from clouds, and a volcano was perceived in one of those on the western side. Its latitude is 60 deg. 23 min. and it is the first high mountain north of St. Augustin. The volcano is near the summit, and on that part of the mountain next the river. It emits a white smoke, but no fire.

Captain Cook remarks, that all the people seen in this river had a striking resemblance, in every particular, to those who inhabit Prince William's Sound.

The points of their spears and knives are made of iron: some of the former, indeed, are made of copper. Their spears resemble the British pike-staves; and their knives, for which they have sheaths, are of a considerable length. Except these, and a few glass beads, every thing seen amongst them was of their own manufacture.

Conjectures have been formed from whence they derive their foreign articles. It cannot be supposed, however, that the Russians have been amongst them, as they would not then have been seen clothed in such valuable skins as those of the sea-otter.

A very beneficial fur trade might certainly be carried on with the natives of this vast coast; but, without a northern passage, it is too remote for Great Britain to be benefited by such commerce. It should,

however, be observed, that almost the only valuable skins on this west side of North America, are those of the sea-otter. Their other skins were of a superior quality; and it should be farther observed, that the greater part of the skins which were purchased of them were made up into garments. Some of them, indeed, were in pretty good condition; others old and ragged; and all of them extremely lousy. But as skins are used by these people only for cloathing themselves, they, perhaps, are not at the trouble of dressing more of them than they require for this purpose. This is probably the chief cause of their killing the animals, for they principally receive their supply of food from the seas and rivers. But if they were once habituated to a constant trade with foreigners, such an intercourse would increase their wants, by acquainting them with new luxuries; to be enabled to purchase which, they would become more assiduous in procuring skins; a plentiful supply of which might doubtless be obtained in this country.

I S L A N D S.

ST. HERMOGENES lies in latitude 58 deg. 15 min. north; and longitude 207 deg. 24 min. It is about six leagues in circumference, and one of a cluster of islands that are barren and uninhabited.

TRINITY ISLAND. The greatest extent of this island, according to *Captain Cook's* account, is about six leagues in the direction of east and west. It has naked, elevated land at each end, and is low towards the middle. Its latitude is 56 deg. 36 min. north; longitude 205 deg. It is distant about three leagues from the continent, between which rocks and islands are interspersed. There seems, nevertheless, to be a good passage, and safe anchorage.

FOGGY ISLAND lies in latitude 56 deg. 10 min. and longitude 202 deg. 45 min. and is nine miles in circumference. *Captain Cook* observes that it is so named in the chart, and thinks it reasonable to suppose, that it is the island on which Beering, a famous Russian navigator, had bestowed the same appellation.

THE SCHUMAGINS ISLANDS. This cluster of islands begin in the longitude of 200 deg. 15 min. east, and extend about two degrees to the westward. They are, in general, high, barren, and rugged, exhibiting very romantic appearances, and abounding with rocks and cliffs. They have several bays and coves about them, and some fresh water streams descend from their elevated parts; but the land is not embellished with a single tree or bush. The largest of the group is called Kodiak, and lies in 55 deg. 18 min. north.

HALIBUT ISLAND, so called from its abounding with the fish of that name, is seven leagues in circumference, and, except the head, is low and barren. Several small islands are near it, between which and the main there appears to be a passage of the breadth of two or three leagues.

Our navigators were kept at such a distance from the continent by the rocks and breakers, that they had a very distant view of the coast between Halibut Island and Rock Point. They could, however, perceive the main land covered with snow, and particularly some hills, whose elevated tops towered above the clouds to a most stupendous height. On the most south westerly of these hills was seen a volcano, which perpetually threw up immense columns of smoke. The volcano is at no great distance from the coast, and is in the latitude of 54 deg. 48 min. north. Its figure is a complete cone, and the volcano is at the summit of it. Our voyagers observed, that, remarkable as it may appear, the wind, at the height to which the smoke of the volcano rose, often moved in an opposite direction to what it did at sea, even in a fresh gale.

Captain

Captain Cook takes occasion to observe, that it was evident, from divers circumstances, that the Russians had some communication with the people of this spot, and particularly from the following. While our people were fishing they were visited by a man in a small canoe, who came from the large island. He had on a pair of green cloth breeches, and a jacket of black cloth under the frock of his own country. He had with him a grey fox skin and some fishing implements; also a bladder, in which was supposed to be oil, as he opened it, drank a mouthful, and then closed it up. His features resembled those of the natives of Prince William's Sound, but he was perfectly free from any kind of paint. His lip had been perforated in an oblique direction, though at that time he had not any ornament in it. Many of the words frequently used by the people of the Sound were repeated to him, but he did not appear to understand any of them, owing, as it was imagined, either to his ignorance of the dialect, or the erroneous pronunciation of our people.

From Halibut Island the ships proceeded in various directions, but mostly to the southward, till at length land presented itself in every direction. That to the south extended in a ridge of mountains to the southwest, which our voyagers afterwards found to be an island called

O O N A L A S H K A.

SECTION I.

Introductory Remarks. Interview with the Natives. Description of their Persons, Diseases, Dispositions, Dress and Employments. Food. Habitations. Method of producing Fire. Furniture. Utensils. Tools. Canoes. Implements for Fishing and Hunting. Musical Instruments.

IT is remarked by *Captain Cook*, from observations he made upon his first arrival at the Island of Oonalashka, that though such of the natives as came off to the ships, and engaged in a little traffic with the crews, seemed remarkably shy, it was evident that they were not unacquainted with vessels resembling, in some degree, those in which our voyagers sailed. He adds, that their behaviour discovered a politeness he never observed before in rude and uncultivated nations.

On coming to anchor our people were visited by several of the natives in separate canoes. They bartered some fishing implements for tobacco. A young man among them overset his canoe while he was along side of one of our boats. He was caught hold of by one of our people, but the canoe was taken up by another, and carried ashore. In consequence of this accident the youth was obliged to come into the ship, where he was invited into the cabin, and readily accepted the invitation, without any surprize or embarrassment. He had on an upper garment, resembling a shirt, made of the gut of a whale, or some other large sea animal. Under this he had another of the same form, made of the skins of birds with the feathers on, curiously sewed together; the feathered side placed next his skin. It was patched with several pieces of silk stuff, and his cap was ornamented with glass beads.

His cloaths being wet he was furnished by our sailors with some of their own, which he put on with as much readiness as they could have done. From the behaviour of this youth, and that of several others, it evidently appeared, that these people were no strangers to Europeans, and to many of their customs. Something in the ships, however, greatly excited their curiosity; for, such as had not canoes to bring them off assembled on the neighbouring hills to have a view of them.

Soon after a number of the natives of both sexes were seen on the shore, seated on the grass, partaking of a meal of raw fish, which they seemed highly to relish.

The ships afterwards left their former station, and came to anchor in the harbour called by the natives Sanganoosha. It is situated on the north side of Oonalashka, the latitude being 53 deg. 15 min. the longitude 193 deg. 30 min. and in the strait which separates this island from those to the north. It is about a mile broad at the entrance, and runs in about four miles south by west. It narrows towards the head, the breadth there not exceeding a quarter of a mile. Plenty of good water may be procured here, but not a piece of wood of any kind.

The natives when they came on board brought with them dried salmon and other fish, which the sailors received in exchange for tobacco. Only a few days before every ounce of tobacco that remained in the ship had been distributed among them, and the quantity was not half sufficient to answer their demands. Notwithstanding this, so thoughtless and improvident a being is an English sailor, that they were as profuse in making their bargains as if they had arrived at a port in Virginia; by which means, in less than two days, the value of this commodity was raised on board above a thousand per cent.

The men of Oonalashka are in general of the middling stature. Their faces are broad, their eyes small, their noses mostly flat, their mouths wide, and their lips thick; their teeth are uneven, and often discoloured. Their hair is black and rather long behind, but cut before so as to reach nearly to their eye-lids. The women are generally shorter than the men, and their features more agreeable. They wear their hair on their foreheads in the same manner as the men.

The Russians that were here at this time never had any connection with their women, on account of their not being Christians. Our people, however, were less scrupulous; and some of them had reason to repent that the women of Oonalashka encouraged their addresses; for their health was injured by a distemper that is not wholly unknown here. The natives are also subject to the cancer, or a complaint of a similar nature, which those who are attacked by it are studious to conceal. They do not appear to be long-lived. The Captain did not see a person, man or woman, whom he could suppose to be sixty years of age; and observed very few who seemed to exceed fifty.

The native inhabitants of this island are, to all appearance, a very peaceable, inoffensive race of people: they are exceeding chearful and friendly among each other, and always treated the Europeans with great civility. In point of honesty *Captain Cook* observed, they might serve as a pattern to the most civilized nations. But, from what he saw of their neighbours, with whom the Russians are unconnected, he had some doubt whether this was their original disposition; and was rather inclined to be of opinion, that it is the consequence of their present state of subjection. Indeed, if he did not misunderstand the Russians, they had been under the necessity of making some severe examples before they could bring the islanders into tolerable order. If severities were really inflicted at first, the best excuse for them is, that they have produced the most beneficial effects: at present the greatest harmony subsists between the Russians and the natives. The latter have their own chiefs in each island, and seem to enjoy liberty and property without molestation. Whether they are tributaries to the Russians or not he could never learn, but had some reason to suppose they are.

The dress of the women is a frock of the skins of seals, ornamented with a kind of husk or shell encircling the upper part of the garment, and thence hanging down to the waist. They have the same ornament round the shoulders. They adorn their under lips with slips of narrow carved bone, wear strings of beads at the nose, as well as bunches of beads in their ears. They puncture their cheeks sometimes with one, and sometimes with two lines: these lines extend from the middle part of the cheeks to the ears. They decorate their

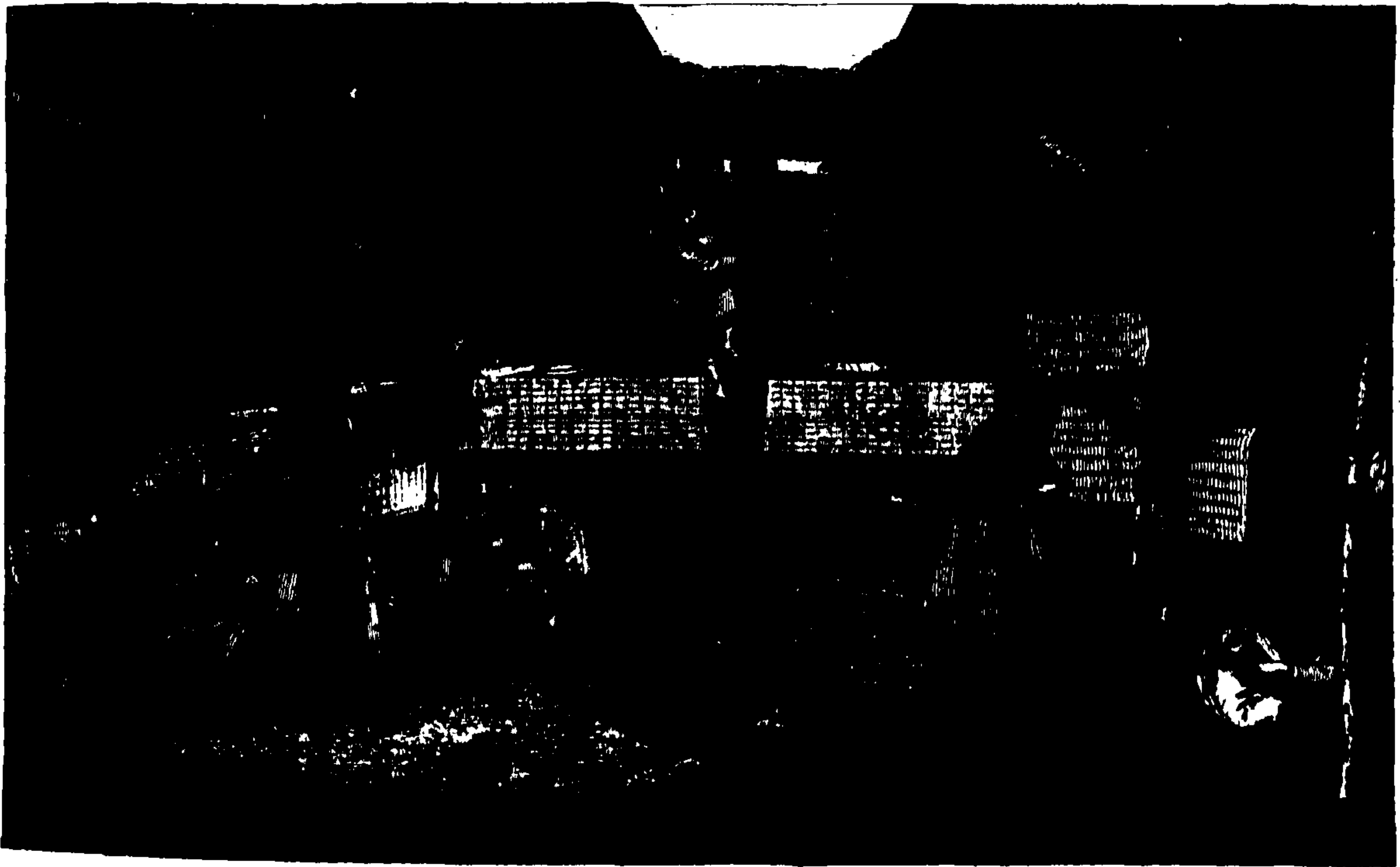


View of OONALASHKA, *and the* INHABITANTS, &c. ()

Engraved for BANKES'S *New System of GEOGRAPHY* Published by Royal Authority.



'Canoes used by the Natives of Conalashka.'



'The Inside of a House in Conalashka.'

Hawkins sculp

their chins in the same form. The practice of puncturing or tattowing is confined to the female sex, who are not allowed to adopt it till they attain to a certain age. Their caps are of an oval form and composed of skin, feathers and hair, the whole of which are interwoven with singular ingenuity.

The dress of the men is a frock composed of the skins of birds ingeniously wrought together, with the feather side inwards. Their best dress is painted before and behind just below the shoulders and breast, and to the seams which go over the shoulders are fastened rows of fur. They also wear fur upon other parts of the garment, the rows being about eight inches distant from each other. Over these frocks, when they go on the water, they wear an additional covering composed of gut, which water cannot penetrate. It has a hood to it which is drawn over the head. They have a kind of oval snouted cap made of wood, with a rim that admits the head. They dye their caps with green and other colours, and round the upper part of the rim they fix the long bristles of some sea animal, on which glass beads are strung; and on the front is a small image or two formed of bone.

The dress, in its general appearance, excepting the embellishments of the fur, bears a great resemblance to a waggoner's frock.

Various are the employments of the women, such as assisting in drying fish in the summer, cutting grass in autumn for the different purposes of making thatch, baskets, mats and other utensils, as well as gathering berries and roots.

All sewing business is confined to the women. They are the shoe-makers, taylor, and boat-builders, or boat-coverers; for the men construct the wooden frame over which the skins are sewed. They manufacture mats, and baskets of grass, which are both strong and beautiful. There is, indeed, a neatness and perfection in most of their work, that shews they are neither deficient in ingenuity or perseverance. Instead of thread they use the fibres of sinews, which they split to the thickness required. Their needles being made of bone and without eyes renders the European needles a valuable article of traffic. They manufacture mats and baskets, and indeed display a neatness and perfection in most of their works.

The men are employed in summer in catching and drying fish, killing whales for the winter stock of provision, making and repairing canoes, and also in domestic matters. They converted the greatest part of the tobacco they received by way of barter into snuff. The method was to reduce the tobacco to powder by rubbing it in a small wooden bowl with a stick, to the upper end of which they fastened several stones to render it heavy. When sufficiently pulverized, it passed through a fine sieve, and thus ended the process.

Their food consists of whales flesh, fish, birds, roots and berries. As the whales are generally taken at the approach of summer, they have time to dry the flesh and prepare the blubber, which are principal parts of their winter provision. With the blubber they eat the dried halibut. This seems, in some measure, to supply the want of bread. Sometimes they dip it in train oil, of which they are very fond. They likewise eat the dried whales flesh with oil. They are not nice in cleaning their fish, and frequently eat them raw. Boiling and broiling were the chief methods of cookery practised among them. Some had small brass kettles, and some a substitute made of a flat stone with sides of clay.

Captain Cook once happened to be present when the chief of this island made his dinner of the raw head of a large halibut, just caught. Before any part of it was given to the chief, two of his servants ate the gills, with no other dressing than squeezing out the juice. After this, one of them having cut off the head of the fish took it to the sea and washed it, then came with it, and seated himself by the chief; but not before he had pulled up some grass, upon a part of which the head was placed, and the rest was strewed before the chief.

He then cut large pieces off the cheeks, and put them within the reach of the chief, who swallowed them with great satisfaction. When he had finished his meal the remainder of the head being cut in pieces were given to the servants, who tore off the meat with their teeth, and gnawed the bones like so many dogs.

They dress whales flesh in such a manner as to make it very good eating; and they have a kind of pan-pudding of salmon roe, beaten up fine, and fried, which is a tolerable substitute for bread. They may, perhaps, occasionally taste real bread, or have a dish in which flour is one of the ingredients. Except the juice of berries, which they generally sip at their meals, they drink no other liquor than pure water.

Berries compose a principal part of their food. They eat them with train oil, which they think adds much to their flavour. Of roots the Saranne is the most agreeable eating: when boiled it becomes mealy, and resembles a potatoe.

The following is their method of building: they dig in the ground an oblong pit, which rarely exceeds fifty feet in length, and twenty in breadth; but the dimensions are in general smaller. Over this excavation they form the roof of wood, which they cover first with grass, and then with earth, so that the external appearance resembles a dung-hill. Near each end of the roof is left a square opening, which admits the light; one of these openings being intended only for this purpose, and the other being also used to go in and out by, with the assistance of a ladder, or rather a post, in which steps are cut. In some of the houses there is another entrance below, but this is rather uncommon. Round the sides and ends of the habitations, the families, several of which dwell together, have their separate apartments, where they sleep, and sit at work; not on benches, but in a sort of concave trench, dug entirely round the inside of the house, and covered with mats, so that this part is kept pretty clean and decent. The same cannot be said of the middle of the house. For, though it is covered with dry grass, it is a receptacle for every kind of dirt, and the place where the urine trough stands, the stench of which is by no means improved by raw hides, or leather, being almost continually steeped in it. Behind, and over the trench, they place the few effects they have in their possession, such as their mats, skins and apparel.

No fire-place was seen in any one of their habitations, which are lighted, as well as heated, by lamps. Both sexes often warm themselves over one of these lamps by placing it between their legs under their garments, and sitting thus over it for several minutes. These people produce fire by collision and attrition; the first by striking two stones against each other, on one of which a quantity of brimstone has been previously rubbed. The latter method is performed by means of two pieces of wood, one of which is flat, and the other is a stick of the length of about a foot and a half. They press the pointed end of the stick upon the other piece, whirling it nimbly round as a drill, and thus fire is procured in a few minutes. This method is common in many countries. It is not only practised by these people, but also by the Kamtschadales, the Greenlanders, the Otaheiteans, the New Hollanders, and the Brazilians, and probably by other nations.

Their household furniture consists chiefly of wooden bowls, troughs and platters, cans, buckets, and sometimes a Russian kettle or pot. Though these utensils are made in a neat manner, no other tools were seen among them than the knife and the hatchet, that is, a small piece of flat iron made like an adze, by fixing it into a crooked wooden handle.

The canoes in use among the natives are smaller than any of those seen upon the coast of America, from which, however, they differ but little in their construction. The head is forked, and the upper point of the fork projects without the under one, which is level with the surface of the water. It is remarkable that they should thus construct them, for the fork generally catches

catches hold of every thing that comes in the way ; to prevent which, they fix a piece of small stick from one point to the other. In other respects they build their canoes after the manner of those of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders ; the frame being of slender laths, and the covering of the skins of seals. They are about 12 feet in length, 18 inches in breadth in the middle, and 12 or 14 inches in depth. They sometimes carry two persons, one of whom sits in the seat, or round hole, which is nearly in the middle, and the other at about three feet distance. Round these holes is a rim or hoop of wood, about which gut skin is sewed, which can be drawn together, or opened like a purse, with leathern strings fitted to the outer edge. The men sit in this place, draw the skin tight about their bodies over the gut-frock, and bring the ends of the thongs, or purse-strings, over their shoulders. The sleeves of their frocks are fastened tight round their wrists ; and it being close round their necks, and the hood being drawn over the head where the cap confines it, water cannot penetrate, either into the canoe, or to the body. In their single canoes they make use of a double-bladed paddle, which is held with both hands in the middle, striking the water first on one side, and then on the other, with a quick regular motion. Thus the canoe is impelled at a great rate, and in a direction perfectly strait. In sailing from Igoochthak to Sanganoodeha, though the ships went at the rate of seven miles an hour, two or three canoes kept pace with her.

Their implements for fishing and hunting are well contrived and executed, being of wood and bone, and, in some respects, resembling those used by the Greenlanders. The main difference is in the point of the missile dart, of which some were seen on this island not above an inch in length, whereas some of those of the Greenlanders are about fourteen inches long. Their darts (which, as well as their other instruments, are curious) are generally made of fir, and are about four feet in length. One end is formed of bone, into which, by means of a socket, another small piece of bone, which is barbed, is fixed, but contrived in such a manner, as to put in and take out without trouble. This is secured to the middle of the stick by a strong, though thin, piece of twine, composed of sinews. The bird, fish, or other animal, is no sooner struck, than the pointed bone slips out of the socket, but remains fixed in its body by means of the barb. The dart then serves as a float to trace the animal, and also contributes to fatigue it considerably, so that it is easily taken. They throw these darts by the assistance of a thin piece of wood, twelve or fourteen inches long. The middle of this is slightly hollowed, for the better reception of the weapon ; and at the termination of the hollow, which does not extend to the end, is fixed a short pointed piece of bone, to prevent the dart from slipping. The other extremity is furnished with a hole for the reception of the fore-finger ; and the sides are made to coincide with the other fingers and thumb, in order to grasp with the greater firmness. The natives throw these darts to the distance of 80 or 90 yards, with great force and dexterity. They are exceedingly expert in striking fish, both in the sea, and in rivers. They also use hooks and lines, nets and wears. The lines are formed of twisted sinews, and the hooks of bone.

The only musical instrument seen here (if it deserves the name) was a kind of drum, like that of the Tichut-ichi. It had only one head, composed of a part of the gut of a whale, strained very tight over a frame. But notwithstanding the distinguished simplicity of this instrument, they greatly admire it, and it furnishes them not only with amusement, when individuals invite each other to their houses, but it also highly contributes to the entertainment of the company at all public assemblies.

No offensive, or even defensive, weapon was seen among the natives, of which, it was naturally supposed, they had been deprived by the Russians, for their own safety.

SECTION II.

Description of the Country. Vegetables. Quadrupeds. Birds. Sea Animals. Fish. Repositories of the Dead. Intercourse with the Russians. Information received from them. Conclusive Remarks.

THIS island abounds in hills, some of which are very high. The low land, of which there is but little, is very marshy, owing to the waters that are perpetually flowing from the hills. The soil on the tops of the hills is about two feet deep, under which there is a layer of small stones. The sides of the hills are rich ; and the marshy low ground a fine, deep, black soil.

As the excursions and observations of our voyagers were confined to the sea-coast, they had not an opportunity of obtaining an extensive or particular knowledge of the animal or vegetable productions of the country. Among the plants found here are the plantain, marsh-marigold, violet, saxifrage, sorrel, dock, geranium, dandelion, colt's-foot, faranne, wild cellery, a kind of cresses, and a species of mustard, all of which afforded our people excellent sallads, and were very agreeable in soups. There are berries of different species, as cran-berries, hurtle-berries, bramble-berries, heath-berries, &c. There was a berry here unknown to the naturalists : it had somewhat of the taste of a sloe, but differed from it in every other respect. When eaten in any considerable quantity, it proved very astringent. Brandy might be distilled from it. *Captain Cook* endeavoured to preserve some, but they fermented, and became as strong as if they had been steeped in spirits. The low land is generally covered with a long coarse grass.

The natives are indebted to the sea for all the wood which they use for building, and other necessary purposes ; as there is not a tree to be seen growing on the island, or upon the neighbouring coast of the continent.

The seeds of plants have been conveyed, by various means, from one part of the world to another ; even to islands lying in the midst of extensive oceans, and far distant from any other lands. It is, therefore, remarkable, that there are no trees growing on this part of the American continent, or upon any of the adjacent isles. They are doubtless as well situated for receiving seeds, by the various ways of conveyance, as those coasts which have plenty of wood. Nature has, perhaps, denied to some soils the power of raising trees, without the assistance of art. With respect to the drift-wood upon the shores of these islands, there is no doubt of its coming from America. For though there may be none on the neighbouring coast, a sufficient quantity may grow farther up the country, which may be broke loose by torrents in the spring, and brought down to the sea ; and not a little may be conveyed from the woody coasts, though situated at a more considerable distance.

The quadrupeds seen here were the artic fox, and a species of marmotte without ears, and having a short tail. The natives call them *anump-cho*. Here are no deer, or any domestic animals, not even dogs.

Water fowls are neither found here in such numbers, or in such variety, as in the northern parts of the Atlantic Ocean. However, there are some in these parts that the naturalists did not recollect to have seen in other countries, particularly the *alca monocroa* of Steller, and a black and white duck, which they judged to be different from the stone-duck that *Krascheninikoff* has described in his History of Kamtschatka. All the other birds mentioned by this author were seen, except some which were observed near the ice ; and the greatest part of these, if not all, have been described by *Martin*, in his voyage to Greenland. *Captain Cook* observes, it is somewhat extraordinary, that penguins, which are so frequently met with in many parts of the world, should not be found in this sea. Albatrosses are extremely scarce too. The land birds seen were the bull-finch, the

the wood-pecker, the yellow-finch, titmouse, swallow, and wren.

Seals, and the tribe of sea animals, are not so numerous in this as in many other seas. Sea-horses are, indeed, to be found in prodigious numbers about the ice; and the sea-otter is scarce any where to be met with but in this sea. An animal was sometimes seen by our people, that blew after the manner of whales. It had a head resembling that of a seal. It was larger than that animal, and its colour was white, with dark spots interspersed. This was, perhaps, the *manati*, or sea-cow.

The fish that most abound here are salmon, rock-cod, trout, and halibut. About the middle, and to the end, of October, the inhabitants catch cod. Whales, porpoises, and grampuses, are likewise taken here.

There are few other insects here besides musketos; and few reptiles, except lizards.

Native sulphur was observed among the people of this island, but our people could not learn where they procured it. They also found ochre, and a stone that affords a purple colour; besides another that gives a good green. This last, in its natural state, is of a greyish green hue, coarse, and heavy. It readily dissolves in oil; but when it is put into water, it altogether loses its properties. The stones about the shore and hills were in no instance remarkable.

The Oonalashkans inter their dead on the tops of hills, and raise over the grave a little hillock. One of the natives, who attended *Captain Cook* in a walk into the country, pointed out several of these repositories of the dead. There was one of them by the side of a road, that had a heap of stones over it; and all who passed it added a stone to the heap. In the country were seen several stone hillocks, that seemed to have been artificially raised. Some of them were, to appearance, of great antiquity.

Our countrymen could derive no knowledge respecting either the religion or diversions of these people, having seen nothing that could give them an insight into either.

An extraordinary incident brought on an intercourse between our officers and the Russians resident at Oonalashka. *Captain Cook* received, by the hands of a native, a few days after he came to anchor in Sanganoohah Bay, a very singular present. It was a rye loaf, or rather a pie in the form of a loaf, as it enclosed some salmon, well seasoned with pepper. This man had brought a similar present for *Captain Clerke*, and a note for each of the captains, written in a character which they did not understand. It was natural to imagine that these two presents were from some Russians then in the neighbourhood, and therefore the captains sent, by the same messenger, to these unknown friends, a few bottles of rum, wine, and porter, which they supposed would be highly acceptable. *Captain Cook* also sent with the native the corporal of the marines, an intelligent man, for the purpose of gaining farther information, with orders, that if he met with any Russians, he should endeavour to make them understand, that the strangers were Englishmen, the friends and allies of their nation.

The corporal returned with three Russian seamen, or furriers, who, with several others, resided at Iggooshac, where they had some store-houses, a dwelling-house, and a sloop of about thirty tons burthen. One of these Russians was either master or mate of this vessel. They were all three intelligent, well-behaved men, and extremely ready to give our people all the information they could desire.

They appeared to have a perfect knowledge of the attempts which their countrymen had made to navigate the Frozen Ocean, and of the discoveries that had been made from Kamtschatka, by *Beering*, *Tscherikoff*, and *Spangenberg*. Never was greater respect paid to the memory of any eminent person, than by these men to that of *Beering*.

The trade in which they are engaged is very advantageous, and its being undertaken and extended to the

eastward of Kamtschatka was the immediate result of the second voyage of that distinguished navigator, whose misfortunes proved the source of much private benefit to individuals, and of public utility to the Russian empire. And yet, if his distresses had not accidentally carried him to the island which bears his name, where he ended his life, and from whence the remainder of his ship's crew brought back specimens of its valuable furs, the Russians would probably have undertaken no future voyages, which could lead them to make discoveries in this sea, towards the American coast. Indeed, after this time, their ministry seem to have paid less attention to this object; and for what discoveries have been since made, the world is principally indebted to the enterprising spirit of private merchants, encouraged, however, by the superintending care of the court of Petersburg.

The three Russians departed perfectly satisfied with the reception they had met with, and promised to return in a few days, and bring with them a chart of the islands situate between Kamtschatka and Oonalashka.

While *Captain Cook* was at a village not far from Sanganoohah, a Russian landed there, who proved to be the principal person among his countrymen in this and the adjacent isles. His name was *Erafim Gregoroff Sin Ismyloff*. When he came on board the *Resolution*, *Captain Cook* found him very well acquainted with the geography of those parts, and with all the discoveries which had been made in this quarter by the Russians.

Not only *Ismyloff*, but also the other Russians affirmed that they were totally unacquainted with the American continent to the northward, and that no Russian had seen it of late years. They called it by the same name which *Mr. Stæhlin* has erroneously affixed to his large island, that is, *Alaschka*.

The Russians, as our people were informed, have made several attempts to gain a footing upon that part of the North American continent that lies contiguous to Oonalashka and the adjacent islands, but have constantly been repulsed by the inhabitants, whom they represented as a very treacherous people. They made mention of two or three captains, or chief men, who had been murdered by them; and some of the Russians shewed wounds, which they declared they had received there. They also informed our people, that, in the year 1773, an expedition had been undertaken into the Frozen Ocean in sledges, over the ice, to three large islands, that are situate opposite the mouth of the river *Kovyma*.

A few days after their promise, the three Russians whom the corporal had brought, returned with the charts before mentioned. These charts were two in number, were both manuscripts, and bore every mark of authenticity. One of them comprehended the *Pensinskian Sea*; the coast of *Tartary*, as low as the latitude of 41 deg. north; the *Kurile Islands*, and the peninsula of *Kamtschatka*. The other chart comprehended all the discoveries that the Russians had made to the eastward of *Kamtschatka* towards *America*.

The latitude of the coast discovered by *Beering* and *Tscherikoff*, particularly that part of it discovered by the latter, differs considerably from *Mr. Muller's* chart.

According to *Ismyloff's* account, neither the number or situation of the islands which are dispersed between 32 deg. and 55 deg. of latitude, in the space between *Kamtschatka* and *America*, is properly ascertained. He struck out a third of them, assuring *Capt. Cook* that they did not exist; and he considerably altered the situation of others, which, he said, was necessary from the observations which he himself had made; and there was no reason to entertain a doubt about this. As these islands are nearly under the same parallel, different navigators, misled by their different reckonings, might easily mistake one island, or cluster of islands, for another, and imagine they had made a new discovery, when they had only found old ones, in a position somewhat

what different from that which their former visitors had assigned to them.

The Isles of St. Theodore, St. Stephen, St. Abraham, St. Macanus, Seduction Island, and several others which are represented in Mr. Muller's chart, were not to be found in this now produced. Nay, Immyloff, and the other Russians, assured *Captain Cook*, that they had been frequently sought for without effect. Nevertheless, it is difficult to believe that Mr. Muller could place them in his chart without some authority. *Captain Cook*, however, confiding in the testimony of these people, whom he thought competent witnesses, omitted them in his chart, and made such corrections respecting the other islands, as he had reason to think were necessary.

The American continent is here called, by the Russians, as well as by the islanders, Alaschka; which appellation, though it properly belongs only to that part which is contiguous to an island called Ooneemak, is made use of by them when speaking of the American continent in general.

This was all the intelligence *Captain Cook* got from these people respecting the geography of this part of the globe; and, perhaps, all the information they were able to give. For they repeatedly assured him, that they knew of no other islands besides those which were represented upon this chart, and that no Russian had ever visited any part of the American continent to the northward, except that which is opposite the country of the Tschutski.

Having contracted an acquaintance with these Russians, our officers visited their settlement on the island. It consisted of a dwelling-house and two store houses. Besides the Russians, there was a number of the Kamtschadales, and of the Oonalashkans, as servants to the former. Some other natives of this island, who appeared to be independent of the Russians, lived at the same place. Such of them as belonged to the Russians were all of the male sex; and they are either taken, or purchased, from their parents when young. There were at this time about twenty of these, who could be considered in no other light than as children. They all resided in the same house; the Russians at the upper end, the Kamtschadales in the middle, and the Oonalashkans at the lower end.

Captain Cook, at the close of his account of this island, remarks, that though the resemblance of the inhabitants of this north-western side of America, to those of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders, in various particulars of person, dress, weapons, canoes, and the like, could not but attract his attention, he was much less struck with this, than with the affinity subsisting between the dialects of the Greenlanders and Esquimaux, and those of Oonalashka. He observes, that, with respect to the words which were collected by our people on this side of America, too much stress is not to be laid upon their being accurately represented; for after the death of Mr. Anderson, there were few who took any great degree of pains about such matters; and they had often found that the same word, written down by two or more persons, from the mouth of the same native, differed considerably, on being compared together. Nevertheless he affirms, there is enough to authorize this judgment, that there is great reason to suppose that all these nations are of the same extraction; and if that be the case, there is little doubt of there being a northern communication by sea, between the western side of America, and the eastern side, through Baffin's Bay; which communication, however, is, perhaps, effectually shut up against ships, by ice and other obstructions; such, at least, was *Captain Cook's* opinion.

Having thus described every particular observation made by *Captain Cook* relative to the Island of Oonalashka, together with the manners, customs, and singular ceremonies of the inhabitants, we shall now proceed to his account of Nootka, or King George's Sound, which he visited in his last voyage, and of which he gives the following account.

NOOTKA, OR KING GEORGE'S SOUND.

SECTION I.

Discovery. First Interview with the Natives. Curious Ceremonies previous to their coming on board. Trade established. Articles of Traffic. European Trade engrossed by the Natives of superior power.

CAPTAIN COOK, in his last voyage, being in the latitude of 30 deg. north, observes, that tho' it was then the winter season the people on board only began to feel a sensation of cold in the mornings and evenings, and he makes this remark as a proof of the equal and durable influence of the heat of the sun at all times to 30 degrees on each side the equinoctial line.

When they reached the latitude of 49 deg. 29 min. north, numbers of lofty mountains presented themselves to view, the summits of which were covered with snow. The vallies between them and the land towards the coast were covered with tall straight trees that appeared like a vast forest. Between two Points called by *Captain Cook* Point Breakers and Woody Point, a large bay is formed, which he called Hope Bay, hoping, as he said, to find in it a good harbour, and the event proved he was not mistaken.

As soon as they approached an inlet to the north-east corner of the bay, they perceived the coast to be inhabited; and three canoes came off to the ship, in one of which were two men, in another six, and in the other ten. Advancing pretty near, a person stood up in one of the two last, and spoke for a considerable time, inviting our people, as they supposed by his gestures, to go ashore; and, at the same time, continued strewing feathers towards them. Some of his companions also threw a red powder in the same manner.

The person who was the orator on this occasion was clothed with the skin of some animal, and held something in each hand which rattled as he shook it. At length, grown weary with his repeated exhortations, or which they could not comprehend a word, he became quiet; and the others, in their turn, had something to say; but their speeches were neither so long, or so vehement, as that of the other. The hair of two or three of these people was strewed over with small white feathers; and that of others with large ones, stuck into different parts.

The tumultuous noise having ceased, they lay at a small distance from the ship, conversing together with much ease and composure, without shewing the least distrust or surprize. Some of them rose occasionally, and said something aloud, after the manner of their first harangues; and one, in particular, sung a most agreeable air, accompanied with a degree of melody and softness; the word *hacla* being frequently repeated as the burden of the song.

When the ships came closer to the shore, the canoes began to visit them in great numbers, there being, at one time, no less than 32 of them about them, containing from three to seven or eight persons each, and of both sexes. Several of these also stood up and spoke aloud, using the same gestures as the first visitors. One canoe particularly attracted observation, by a peculiar head, which had a bird's eye, and an enormous large beak, painted on it. The person who was in it, and who appeared to be a chief, was equally remarkable for his singular appearance, having a large quantity of feathers hanging from his head, and being painted or lined in a very extraordinary manner. In his hand he had a carved bird of wood, of the size of a pigeon, with which he often rattled, and was equally vociferous in his harangue, which was accompanied with many expressive gestures. Though these visitors were so peaceable, that they could not be suspected of any hostile intention, not any of them could be prevailed upon to come on board. They were ready, however, to part with any thing they had, and received whatever was

was offered them in exchange, but were more solicitous after iron than any of our other articles of commerce, appearing to be no strangers to the use of that valuable metal.

Some ceremonies took place among these people previous to their coming on board. They paddled, with their utmost strength and activity, round both the ships; a chief, all this time, standing up with a spear in his hand, and speaking, or rather bawling, most vociferously. The face of this orator was sometimes covered with a mask, representing either a human countenance, or that of some other animal; and, instead of a spear, he had a kind of rattle in his hand. Having made this ceremonious circuit round the ship, they would come along-side, and then begin to traffic with our people. Frequently, indeed, they would first entertain them with a song, in which their whole company joined, and produced a very agreeable harmony.

When the ships came to anchor they were surrounded by canoes filled with the inhabitants, a reciprocal trade was commenced, and conducted with the strictest harmony and integrity on both sides. Their articles of commerce were the skins of various animals, such as bears, sea-otters, wolves, foxes, deer, racoons, martins, and pole-cats. They also produced garments made of skins; and another kind of cloathing, fabricated from the bark of a tree, or a plant resembling hemp. Besides these articles, they had bows, arrows, spears, fish-hooks, various kinds of instruments, wooden vizors representing horrid figures, a sort of woollen stuff, carved work, beads, and red ochre; also several little ornaments of thin brass and iron, resembling a horse-shoe, which they wore pendant at their noses. They had likewise several pieces of iron fixed to handles, somewhat resembling chissels. From their being in possession of these metals, it was natural for our people to infer, that they must either have been visited before by people of some civilized nation, or had connections with those on their own continent, who had some communication with them.

But the most extraordinary articles which they offered to sale were human skulls and hands, with some of the flesh remaining on them, which they acknowledged they had been feeding on; and some of them, indeed, bore evident marks of their having been upon the fire. From this circumstance it was but too apparent, that the horrid custom of devouring their enemies is practised here as much as at New-Zealand, and other South Sea islands. There is too much reason, from their bringing to sale human skulls and bones, to infer, that they treat their enemies with a degree of brutal cruelty; yet this circumstance rather marks a general agreement of character with that of almost every tribe of uncivilized men, in every age, and in every part of the globe. For the various articles they brought, they received, in exchange, knives, chissels, nails, looking-glasses, buttons, pieces of iron and tin, or any kind of metal. They had not much inclination for glass beads, and rejected every kind of cloth.

Such of the natives as visited our people daily, were the most beneficial to them; for, after disposing of their trifles, they employed themselves in fishing, and they always partook of what they caught. They also procured from them a considerable quantity of good animal oil, which they brought in bladders. Some, indeed, attempted to cheat, by mixing water with the oil; and, once or twice, they so far imposed upon them, as to fill their bladders with water only. But it was better to wink at these impositions, than suffer them to produce a quarrel; for the European articles of traffic chiefly consisted of trifles, and it was found difficult to produce a constant supply even of these. Beads, and such like toys, of which some were remaining, were not highly estimated. Metal was principally demanded by the natives; and brass had now supplanted iron, being sought after with such eagerness, that before the ships left the sound, hardly a bit of it was to be found in them, except what constituted a part of the necessary

instruments. Suits of cloaths were stripped of their buttons, bureaus of their furniture, kettles, cannisters, and candlesticks; all went to rack; so that they procured a greater variety of things than any other nation our people had visited.

A party of strangers, in seven or eight canoes, came into the cove, and, after looking at the strangers for some time, retired. It was apprehended that their old friends, who, at this time, were more numerous about the ships than the new visitors, would not suffer them to have any dealings with our people. It was evident, indeed, that the principal natives engrossed them entirely to themselves; and that they carried on a traffic with more distant tribes in those articles they had received; for they frequently disappeared for four or five days together, and returned with fresh cargoes of curiosities and skins, which our people were so passionately fond of, that they always came to a good market. Our people were convinced of this on many other occasions. Nay, even among those who lived in the sound, the weaker were often obliged to submit to the stronger party, and were plundered of every thing, without even attempting to make any resistance.

SECTION II.

Visits from and to the Natives of the different Parts of the Sound, and Instances of their Civility. Treatment received from an inhospitable Chief. Groundless Apprehensions of an Attack. Injurious Thefts. Claims of the Natives for the Produce of the Country.

THE natives were not discouraged, by some bad weather that happened, from making our people daily visits; and, in their situation, such visits were very acceptable. They frequently brought them a supply of fish, when they were unable to catch any with a hook and line; and they had not a convenient place to draw a net. The fish they brought were small cod, and a small kind of bream, or sardine.

The officers received a visit, in the evening, from a tribe of natives not seen before, and who, in general, made a better appearance than their old friends. They were conducted into the cabin, but there was not an object that engaged their attention: all novelties were looked on with indifference, except by a very few, who shewed a certain degree of curiosity.

When the most important business of the ship was finished, Captain Cook set out to survey the sound, and going first to the west point, he discovered a large village, and, before it, a very snug harbour, with from nine to four fathom water. The inhabitants, who were numerous, received him with great courtesy, every one pressing him to enter his apartment; for several families have habitations under the same roof. He politely accepted the invitations; and the hospitable friends whom he visited testified every mark of civility and respect.

Captain Cook, proceeding up the west-side of the sound, for near three miles, saw several islands, so situated as to form some convenient harbours.

Proceeding some distance farther he found the ruins of a village. The framings of the houses remained standing, but the boards or roofs were taken away. Behind this deserted village was a small plain, covered with large pine trees. This was, indeed, singular, as most of the elevated ground on this side of the sound appeared rather naked.

On the east-side of the sound the Captain found what he had before imagined, that it was an island under which the ships lay, and that many smaller ones lay scattered on the west side of it. Upon the main land, opposite the north end of the island, he observed a village, and landed there; but he was not so politely received by the inhabitants, as by those of the other village he had visited. This cold reception was occasioned by one surly chief, who would not suffer the Captain to enter their houses, but followed him wherever he went, making

making expressive signs that he was impatient for him to be gone. The Captain attempted, but in vain, to soothe him with presents; for though he did not refuse them, he continued the same kind of behaviour. But notwithstanding this treatment from the inhospitable chief, some of the young women expeditiously apparelled themselves in their best, assembled in a body, and gave him a hearty welcome to the village, by joining in an agreeable song. Evening now drawing on, the Captain proceeded for the ships round the north end of the island. When he returned on board, he was informed that, in his absence, some strangers, in two or three large canoes, had made a visit to the ships, from whom our people understood by signs, that they had come from the south-east. They brought with them several garments, skins, and other articles, which they bartered for some of ours. But the most remarkable circumstance was, that two silver table-spoons were purchased of them by our people, which appeared to be of Spanish manufacture. They were worn round the neck of one of these visitors by way of ornament.

The day following a party of the natives from the southward advanced towards the ships, all standing up in their canoes, and began to sing. Some of their songs were slow and solemn, and in which they were joined by the whole body: others were in quicker time, and their notes were regularly accompanied by the motions of their hands, their paddles beating in concert on the sides of the canoes; and they, at the same time, exhibited the most expressive gestures. They remained silent, for a few seconds, after the conclusion of each song, and then began again, frequently pronouncing the word *hoee* as a kind of chorus.

Having thus favoured our people with a specimen of their music, with which they were highly entertained for half an hour, they came nearer the ships, and bartered with them. They now perceived that some of their old friends from the sound were among them, who managed for the strangers in the traffic carried on between them and our people.

Soon after our people had occasion for a very serious alarm. The party who were employed on shore, in cutting wood and filling water, observed, that the natives, in all quarters, were arming themselves in the best manner they were able; and that those who had not proper weapons, were collecting sticks and stones. Hearing this, they thought it necessary to arm also, but resolved to act upon the defensive only. *Captain Cook* ordered all the workmen to repair to the rock on which the observatories had been placed, leaving the supposed enemy in possession of the ground where they had assembled, which was within about 100 yards of the Resolution's stern. The danger, however, was only imaginary: for these hostile preparations were directed against a body of their own countrymen, who were advancing to attack them; and when they perceived the apprehensions of our people, they exerted their best endeavours to convince them that this was really the case. People were observed looking out on both sides of the cove, and canoes were frequently dispatched between them and the main body. The adverse party, on board about a dozen large canoes, at length drew up in line of battle off the south point of the cove, a negotiation for the restoration of peace having been commenced. In conducting the treaty, several people in canoes passed between the two parties, and some debates ensued. At length the matter in dispute appeared to be adjusted; but the strangers were not permitted to approach the ships, or to have any intercourse or dealings with our people.

Our people were, no doubt, the occasion of the quarrel; the strangers, perhaps, insisting on having a right of sharing in the advantages of a trade with them, and their first friends resolving to engross them entirely to themselves.

If they at first had apprehended that our people meant to be hostile, their fears were now removed; for they ventured on board the ships, and mixed with them with the utmost freedom and familiarity.

Our people found, after a short intercourse with the natives, that they were as much addicted to theft as any they had met with during the voyage; and having sharp instruments in their possession, they could easily cut a hook from a tackle, or a piece of iron from a rope. Besides other articles, they lost several hooks in this manner, one of which weighed between twenty and thirty pounds. They stripped the boats of all the iron that was worth taking away, though some of the crew were always left in them as a guard. They were, indeed, so dextrous in effecting their purposes, that one fellow would contrive to amuse our people at one end of the boat, while another was forcing off the iron-work at the other. If an article that had been stolen was immediately missed, the thief was easily detected, as they were fond of impeaching each other. But the prize was always reluctantly given up by the guilty person; and sometimes compulsive means were obliged to be exercised for that purpose.

These visitors being gone, the Captains Cook and Clerk went with two boats to the village at the west point, where Captain Cook had been two days before, and had observed that plenty of grass was to be had near it; and it was necessary to get a supply of this for the few remaining goats and sheep which were still on board. They experienced the same welcome reception that the Captain had met with before; and soon after they were ashore, *Captain Cook* ordered some of his people to begin cutting, not imagining that the natives would object to their furnishing themselves with what could not be of any use to them, though essentially necessary for the Europeans. In this, however, he was mistaken; for as soon as the men began cutting the grass, some of the inhabitants would not permit them to proceed, saying, "*makook*," which signified that they must buy it first. The Captain, at this time, was in one of the houses, but, hearing of this, he repaired immediately to the field, where he found about a dozen claimants of different parts of the grass that grew on the premises. He treated with them for it, and having complied with the terms of his purchase, thought his men had now full liberty to cut wherever they pleased. Here he was again mistaken; for he had so liberally paid the first pretended proprietors, that fresh demands were made from others; so that it almost appeared that every single blade of grass had a separate owner; and so many of them were to be satisfied, that his pockets presently became empty. When they were, however, convinced that he had nothing more to give, they ceased to be importunate, and the men were permitted to cut where they pleased, and as much as they pleased.

Captain Cook observes, that he never met with any uncivilized nation, or tribe, who possessed such strict notions of their having an exclusive property in the produce of their country, as the inhabitants of this sound. They even wanted our people to pay for the wood and water that was carried on board. Had the Captain been present when these demands were made, he would doubtless have complied with them; but the workmen thought differently, and paid little or no attention to such claims. The natives, thinking they were determined to pay nothing, at length ceased to apply. But they frequently took occasion to remind them, that they had given the wood and water out of friendship.

SECTION III.

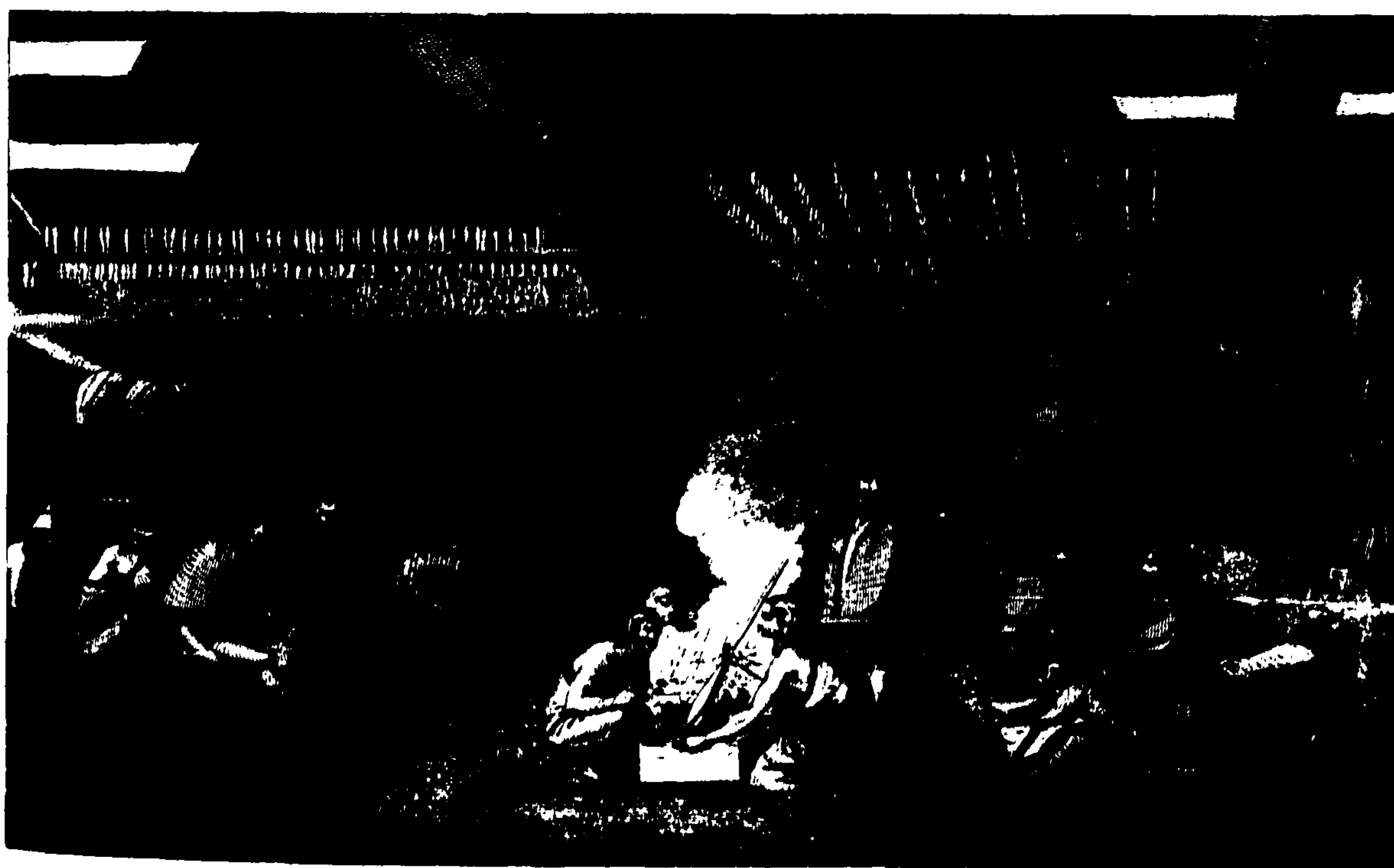
Persons, Dress, Disposition, and Language: Political and Religious Institutions of the Natives. Number of Inhabitants.

THE natives of this sound are low in stature, but their persons are not proportionably slender, being usually pretty plump, though not muscular. Their soft fleshiness, however, seems never to swell into corpulence; and many of the older people are rather lean. Most of them have round full visages, which are sometimes broad, with high prominent cheeks. Above these

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*



Habitations in NOOTKA SOUND *North America.*



Hastings sculp.

The INSIDE *of a* HABITATION *in* Nootka Sound *?*

these the face frequently appears fallen in quite across between the temples. The nose flattens at its base, has wide nostrils, and a rounded point. The forehead is low; the eyes small, black, and languishing; the mouth round, the lips thick, and the teeth regular and well set, but not remarkable for their whiteness.

Many of the men have no beards at all, and others only a small thin one upon the point of the chin. This does not arise from an original deficiency of hair on that part, but from their plucking it out by the roots; for those who do not destroy it have not only considerable beards on every part of the chin, but also whiskers, or mustachias, running from the upper lip to the lower jaw obliquely downwards. Their eye-brows are also scanty and narrow; but they have abundance of hair on the head, which is strong, black, strait, and lank. Their necks are short; and their arms are rather clumsy, having nothing of beauty or elegance in their formation. The limbs, in all of them, are small in proportion to the other parts; besides, they are crooked and ill-formed, having projecting ancles, and large feet, which are awkwardly shaped. The latter defect seems to be occasioned, in a great measure, by their sitting so continually on their hams or knees.

Their colour cannot properly be ascertained, their bodies being encrusted with paint and nastiness; though when the paint has been carefully rubbed off, the skin was little inferior, in whiteness, to that of the Europeans, but of that palish cast which distinguishes the inhabitants of our southern nations. Some of them, when young, appear rather agreeable, when compared to the generality of the people; that period of life being attended with a peculiar degree of animation; but, after a certain age, the distinction is hardly observable; a remarkable sameness characterizes every countenance, dulness and want of expression being visibly portrayed in every visage. The women, in general, are of the same size, colour, and form, with the men; nor is it easy to distinguish them, as they possess no natural feminine delicacies. Nor was there a single one to be found, even among those who were in their prime, who had the least pretensions to beauty or comeliness.

The ordinary dress of both sexes is a flaxen kind of mantle, ornamented with a narrow stripe of fur on the upper edge, and fringes at the lower edge. Passing under the left arm, it is tied over the right shoulder, leaving both arms perfectly free. Sometimes the mantle is fastened round the waist by a girdle of coarse matting. Over this is worn a small cloak of the same substance, reaching to the waist, also fringed at the bottom. They wear a cap like a truncated cone, or a flower-pot, made of a very fine matting, ornamented with a round knob, or a bunch of leathern tassels, having a string passing under the chin, to prevent its blowing off.

The above dress is common to both sexes; and the men often wear, over their other garments, the skin of some animal, as a bear, wolf, or sea-otter, with the hair outwards; sometimes tying it before, and sometimes behind, like a cloak. They throw a coarse mat about their shoulders in rainy weather; and they have woollen garments, which are but little used. They generally wear their hair hanging loosely down; but those who have not a cap tie it in a kind of bunch on the crown of the head.

Their dress is certainly convenient, and, were it kept clean, would not be inelegant; but as they are continually rubbing their bodies over with a red paint, mixed with oil, their garments become greasy, and contract a rancid, offensive smell. The appearance of these people is both wretched and filthy, and their heads and garments swarm with vermin. So lost are they to every idea of cleanliness, that our people frequently saw them pick them off and eat them with the greatest composure.

Their bodies, it has been observed, are always covered with red paint, but their faces are ornamented with a variety of colours; a black, a brighter red, or a white colour. The last of these gives them a ghastly horrible appearance.

Many of their ears are perforated in the lobe, where they make a large hole, and two smaller ones higher up on the outer edge. In these holes are hung bits of bone, quills fastened upon a leathern thong, shells, bunches of tassels, or thin pieces of copper. In some the *septum* of the nose is also perforated, and a piece of cord drawn through it.

The bracelets, which they wear about their wrists, are bunches of white bugle beads, or thongs with tassels, or a broad black horny shining substance. Round their ancles they frequently wear leathern thongs, or the sinews of animals curiously twisted.

They have some dresses that are used only on extraordinary occasions, such as going to war, and exhibiting themselves to strangers in ceremonial visits. Amongst these are the skins of wolves or bears, tied on like other garments, but edged with broad borders of fur, ingeniously ornamented with various figures. These are occasionally worn separately, or over their common cloathing. The most usual head-dress, on these occasions, is a quantity of withe, wrapped about the head, with large feathers, particularly those of eagles, stuck in it; or it is entirely covered with small white feathers. At the same time the face is variously painted; the upper and lower parts being of opposite colours, and the strokes having the appearance of fresh gashes; or it is besmeared with a kind of fat or tallow, mixed with paint, formed into a great variety of figures, somewhat like carved work.

Sometimes the hair is separated into small parcels, and tied, at intervals, with thread; and others tie it together behind, after the English manner, and stick in it some branches of the *cupressus thyoides*. Thus equipped, they have a truly savage and ridiculous appearance, which is much heightened when they assume their monstrous decorations. These consist of great variety of wooden masks, applied to the face, forehead, or upper part of the head. Some of these vizors resemble human faces, having hair, beards, and eye-brows; others represent the heads of birds, and many the heads of animals; such as deer, wolves, porpoises, and others.

These representations generally exceed the natural size, and they are frequently strewed with pieces of the *foliaceous mica*, which makes them glitter, and augments their deformity. Sometimes they fix large pieces of carved work upon the head, projecting to a considerable distance, and resembling the prow of a canoe. So much do they delight in these disguises, that, for want of another mask, one of them was seen to thrust his head into a tin-kettle, which he had bought from our people.

Whether these extravagant masquerade ornaments are used on any religious occasion, or in any kind of diversion, or whether they are calculated to intimidate by their monstrous appearance, or as decoys when hunting animals, is uncertain: but if travellers, in an ignorant and credulous age, when more than marvellous things were supposed to exist, had seen several people decorated in this manner, and had not approached so near them as to be undeceived, they would have believed, that a race of beings existed, partaking of the nature of man and beast.

Among the people of Nootka, one of the dresses seems peculiarly adapted to war. It is a thick tanned leathern mantle doubled, and appears to be the skin of an elk or buffalo. This is fastened on in the ordinary manner, and is so contrived as to cover the breast quite up to the throat; part of it, at the same time, falling down to their heels. This garment is sometimes very curiously painted; and is not only strong enough to resist arrows, but, as our people understood from them, even spears cannot pierce it; so that it may be considered as their completest defensive armour. Sometimes they wear a sort of leathern cloak, over which are rows of the hoofs of deer placed horizontally, and covered with quills, which, on their moving, make a loud rattling noise.

Though

Though these people cannot be viewed without a kind of horror, when they are thus strangely apparelled, yet, when divested of these extravagant dresses, and beheld in their common habit, they have no appearance of ferocity in their countenances, but seem to be of a quiet, phlegmatic disposition; deficient in animation and vivacity, to render themselves agreeable in society. They are rather reserved than loquacious; but their gravity seems constitutional, and not to arise from a conviction of its propriety, or to be the result of any particular mode of education; for, in their highest paroxysms of rage, they have not heat of language, or significance of gestures, to express it sufficiently. They appear to be docile, courteous, and good-natured; but they are quick in resenting injuries, notwithstanding the predominancy of their phlegm; and, like other passionate people, as quickly forgetting them. These fits of passion never extended farther than the parties immediately concerned; the spectators never entering into the merits of the quarrel, whether it was with any of the Europeans, or among their own people, shewing as much indifference as if they were wholly unacquainted with the whole transaction. It was common to see one of them rave and scold, while all his agitation did not in the least excite the attention of his countrymen, and when our people could not discover the object of his displeasure. They never betray the least symptom of timidity upon these occasions, but seem resolutely determined to punish the insulter. With respect to our people, they were under no apprehensions about our superiority; but if any difference arose, were as anxious to avenge the wrong, as if the cause of quarrel had been among themselves.

Their other passions appear to lie dormant, especially their curiosity. Few expressed any desire or inclination to see or examine things with which they were unacquainted, and which, to a curious observer, would have appeared astonishing. If they could procure the articles they knew and wanted, they were perfectly satisfied, regarding every thing else with great indifference. Nor did the persons, dress, and behaviour of the English, (though so very different from their own,) or even the size and construction of their ships, seem to command admiration or attention.

Their indolence may, indeed, be a principal cause of this. But it must be admitted that they are not wholly unsusceptible of the tender passion, which is evident from their being fond of music, and that too of the truly pathetic kind.

Their eagerness to possess iron, brass, or any kind of metal, was so great, that, when an opportunity presented itself, few of them could resist the temptation to steal it. The Natives of the South Sea Islands, as appears in many instances, would steal any thing they could find, without considering whether it was useful to them or not. The novelty of the object was a sufficient inducement for them to get possession of it by any means. They were rather actuated by a childish curiosity, than by a thievish disposition. The inhabitants of Nootka, who made free with the property of our people, are entitled to no such apology. The appellation of thief is certainly due to them; for they knew that what they pilfered from them might be converted to the purposes of private utility, and, according to their estimation of things, was really valuable. Luckily they set no value upon any European articles except the metals. Linens, and many other things, were secure from their depredations, and might safely be left hanging out all night ashore, without being watched. The principle which prompted these people to pilfer, would probably operate in their intercourse with each other. There was, indeed, abundant reason to believe, that stealing is very common amongst them, and frequently produced quarrels, of which our people saw more instances than one.

The younger part of the men are slothful, being generally sitting about, in scattered companies, basking themselves in the sun, or wallowing in the sand upon

the beach like so many hogs, without any kind of covering. This disregard of decency was, however, confined solely to the men. The women were always decently clothed, and behaved with great propriety, justly meriting all commendation for a modest bashfulness, so becoming their sex.

Their language is by no means harsh or disagreeable, farther than proceeds from their using the *k* and *h* with more force, or pronouncing them with less softness, than we do; and, upon the whole, it abounds rather with what we may call labial and dental, than with guttural sounds. The simple sounds, which our people have not heard them use, and which consequently may be reckoned rare, or wanting in their language, are those represented by the letters *a*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *r*, and *v*.

Their method of speaking is very slow and distinct. The language has few prepositions and conjunctions, and, as far as could be discovered, is destitute of even a single interjection, to express admiration or surprise.

With respect to the relation or affinity the language of these people may bear to that of any others, *Captain Cook* observes, that, from the few Mexican words he had been able to procure, there was an obvious agreement in the very frequent terminations of the words in *l*, *tl*, and *z*, throughout the language.

Their orations, which are made either when engaged in any altercation or dispute, or to explain their sentiments publicly on other occasions, seem little more than short sentences, or rather single words, forcibly repeated, and constantly in one tone and degree of strength, accompanied only with a single gesture, which they use at every sentence, jerking their whole body a little forward, by bending the knees, their arms hanging down by their sides at the same time.

With respect to the political and religious institutions of the inhabitants, little information could be obtained. It appeared, however, that there were such men as chiefs, distinguished by the title of *Acweek*, to whom the others are, in some degree, subordinate. But the authority of each of these great men seems to extend no farther than to his own family, who acknowledge him as their head. As they were not all elderly men, it is possible this title may be hereditary.

No opinion could be formed of their religion, but from what they called *Klumma*. These, perhaps, were idols: but as the word *Acweek* was frequently mentioned when they spoke of them, we may suppose them to be the images of some of their ancestors, whose memories they venerate.

A pretty exact computation of the number of inhabitants might be made from the canoes that visited the ships the second day after their arrival. They consisted of about 100, which, upon an average, contained at least five persons each. But as there were very few women, old men, children, or youths, then among them, we may reasonably suppose, that the number of the inhabitants could not be less than four times the number of the visitors, being 2000 in the whole.

SECTION IV.

Employments, Manufactures, Carving, Painting, Concerts, Musical Instruments, Weapons, Canoes, Implements for Fishing and Hunting, Tools, &c.

THE chief employment of the men was fishing and killing animals for the sustenance of their families, few of them being seen engaged in any business in the houses. The women were employed in manufacturing their garments, and curing their fardines, which they also carry from the canoes to their houses. The women also go in the small canoes, to gather muscles and other shell-fish. They are as dextrous as the men in the management of these canoes; and when there are men in the canoes with them, they are paid very little attention to on account of their sex, none of them offering to relieve them from the labour of the paddle. Nor do they shew them any particular respect on other occasions.

Women

Women were employed in making dresses of bark, and executed their business much like the inhabitants of New Zealand. Others were employed in opening sardines, large shoals of which were seen on shore, and measured out to several people, who carried them home, where they performed the operation of curing them, which is done by smoke-drying. They are hung upon small rods, at first, about a foot over the fire, and then removed higher and higher, to make room for others. When dried, they are closely packed in bales, and the bales covered with mats. Thus they are preserved till they are wanted; and they are not unpleasant food. They also cure cod, and other large fish, in the same manner; but these are sometimes dried in the open air.

They display more ingenuity in their manufactures and mechanic arts, than might be expected from a people so uncultivated. The flaxen and woollen garments engage their first care, as being the most material of those that may be classed under the head of manufactures. The former are fabricated from the bark of the pine-tree, beat into a mass resembling hemp. After being prepared in a proper manner, it is spread upon a stick, which is fastened to two others in an erect position. The manufacturer, who sits on her hams at this simple machine, knots it across, at the distance of about half an inch from each other, with small plaited threads. Though it cannot, by this method, be rendered so close and firm as cloth that is woven, it is sufficiently impervious to the air, and is likewise softer and more pliable.

Their woollen garments are probably manufactured in the same manner, though they have much the appearance of a woven cloth: but the supposition of their being wrought in a loom is destroyed by the various figures that are ingeniously inserted in them; it being very improbable that these people should be able to produce such a complex work, except immediately by their hands.

They are of different qualities, some resembling our coarsest sort of blankets, and others not much inferior to our finest sort, and certainly both warmer and softer. The wool of which they are manufactured seems to be produced by different animals, particularly the fox and brown lynx. That from the lynx is the finest, and nearly resembles our coarser wools in colour; but the hair, which also grows upon the animal, being intermixed with it, the appearance of it is somewhat different when wrought.

The ornamental figures in these garments are disposed with great taste, and are generally of a different colour, being usually dyed either of a deep brown or a yellow; the latter of which, when new, equals, in brightness, the best in our carpets.

Their fondness for carving on all their wooden articles corresponds with their taste in working figures upon their garments. Nothing is to be seen without a kind of freeze-work, or a representation of some animal upon it; but the most general figure is that of the human face, which is frequently cut out upon birds, and the other monstrous things already mentioned; and even upon their weapons of bone and stone. The general design of these figures convey a sufficient knowledge of the objects they are intended to represent.

The carving is not executed with the nicety that a dexterous artist would bestow even upon an indifferent design. The same, however, cannot be said of many of the human masks and heads, where they shew themselves to be ingenious sculptors. They preserve, with the greatest exactness, the general character of their own faces, and finish the more minute parts with great accuracy and neatness. That these people have a strong propensity to works of this sort is observable in a variety of particulars. Representations of human figures, birds, beasts, fish, models of their canoes, and household utensils, were found among them in very great abundance.

Having mentioned their skill in some of the imitative arts, such as working figures in their garments, and

engraving or carving them in wood, we may also add their drawing them in colours. The whole process of their whale fishery has been represented, in this manner, on the caps they wear. This, indeed, was rudely executed, but served, at least, to shew, that, though they have not the knowledge of letters amongst them, they have a notion of representing actions, in a lasting way, exclusive of recording them in their songs and traditions. They have also other painted figures, which, perhaps, have no established significations, and are only the creation of fancy or caprice.

The materials of which they make every thing of the rope kind, are formed either from thongs of skins and sinews of animals, or from the flaxen substance of which they manufacture their mantles. The sinews were sometimes so remarkably long, that it was hardly possible they could have belonged to any other animal than the whale.

These people are not wholly unsusceptible of the tender passions, which is evident from their being fond of music, and that too of the truly pathetic kind. They keep an exact concert in their songs, which are often sung by great numbers together; and with their choruses they used to entertain the Europeans. Their songs are generally slow and solemn; but their music is less confined than that which is usually found in other rude nations; the variations being very numerous and expressive, and the melody powerfully soothing. Besides their concerts, sonnets were frequently sung by single performers, keeping time by striking the hand against the thigh. Though solemnity was predominant in their music, they sometimes entertained us in a gay and lively strain, and even with a degree of pleasantry and humour.

The only instruments of music seen among them were a rattle and a small whistle. The rattle is used when they sing; but upon what occasions the whistle is used was never known, unless it be when they assume the figures of particular animals, and endeavour to imitate their howl or cry. Our people once saw one of them dressed in the skin of a wolf, with the head covering his own, striving to imitate that animal by making a squeaking noise with a whistle he had in his mouth. The rattles are generally in the shape of a bird, with small pebbles in the belly, and the tail is the handle. They have another sort, which resembles a child's rattle.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, spears, slings, short truncheons made of bone, and a small pick-axe, somewhat resembling the American tomahawk. Some of the arrows are pointed with iron, and others with indented bone. The spear has usually a long point made of bone. The tomahawk is a stone of the length of seven or eight inches; one end terminating in a point, and the other fixed in a wooden handle. This handle is intended to resemble the head and neck of a human figure; the stone being fixed in the mouth, so as to represent a tongue of great magnitude. To heighten the resemblance, human hair is also fixed to it. This weapon is called *taaweesh*: and they have another weapon made of stone, which they call *seeaik*, about ten or twelve inches long, having a square point.

From the number of their stone and other weapons, it may be reasonably concluded that they frequently engage in close combat: and our people had very disagreeable proofs of their wars being both frequent and bloody, from the number of human skulls that were offered them for sale.

Though the structure of their canoes is simple, they appear well calculated for every useful purpose. The largest, which contain upwards of twenty people, are formed of a single tree. The length of many of them is forty feet, the breadth seven, and the depth three. They become gradually narrower from the middle towards each end, the stern ending perpendicularly with a knob at the top. The fore part stretches forwards and upwards, and ends in a point or prow, much higher than the sides of the canoe, which are nearly straight.

The greatest part of them are without any ornament: some have a little carving, and are studded with seals teeth on the surface. Some also have a kind of additional prow, usually painted with the figure of some animal. They have neither seats, or any other supporters, on the inside, except some small round sticks, about the size of a walking-cane, placed across, about half the depth of the canoe. They are very light, and, on account of their breadth and flatness, swim firmly, without an out-rigger, of which they are all destitute; a remarkable distinction between the navigation of all the American nations and that of the southern parts of the East Indies, and the islands in the Pacific Ocean. Their paddles, which are small and light, resemble a large leaf in shape, being pointed at the bottom, broad in the middle, and gradually becoming narrower in the shaft, the whole length being about five feet. By constant use, they have acquired great dexterity in the management of these paddles; but they never make use of any sails.

The canoes of the larger sort are not only very spacious, but perfectly dry; so that under shelter of a skin, they are, except in rainy weather, much more comfortable habitations than their houses.

Their implements for fishing and hunting, which are ingeniously contrived, and well made, are nets, hooks and lines, harpoons, gigs, and an instrument like an oar. This last is about 20 feet long, four or five inches broad, and about half an inch thick. Each edge, for about two thirds of its length, (the other third being its handle,) is set with sharp bone teeth, about two inches long. With this instrument they attack herrings and sardines, and such other fish as come in shoals. It is struck into the shoal, and the fish are taken either upon or between the teeth. Their hooks, which are made of bone and wood, display no great ingenuity; but the harpoon, which is used in striking whales, and other sea-animals, manifests a great extent of contrivance. It consists of a piece of bone, formed into two barbs, in which the oval blade of a large muscle-shell, and the point of the instrument, is fixed. Two or three fathoms of rope are fastened to this harpoon; and, in throwing it, they use a shaft of about fifteen feet long, to which the rope is fastened; to one end of which the harpoon is fixed, so as to leave the shaft floating, as a buoy upon the water, when the animal is struck with the harpoon.

Their manner of catching and killing land animals cannot be ascertained: but it is probable that they shoot the smaller sorts with their arrows, and encounter bears, wolves, and foxes, with their spears. They have several sorts of nets, which are, perhaps, applied to that purpose; as it was customary for them to throw them over their heads, to signify their use, when they offered them for sale. Sometimes they decoy animals by disguising themselves with a skin, and running upon all fours, in which they are remarkably nimble. The masked or carved heads, as well as the dried heads of different animals, are used upon these occasions.

Their great dexterity in works of wood may, in some measure, be ascribed to the assistance they receive from iron tools; for, as far as is known, they use no other; at least, our people only saw one chisel of bone: and though their tools must have been originally made of different materials, it is not improbable that many of their improvements have been made since they acquired a knowledge of that metal, which now is universally used in their various wooden works.

The knife and chisel are the principal forms that iron assumes amongst them. The chisel consists of a flat long piece, fastened into a wooden handle. A stone is their mallet, and a bit of fish-skin their polisher. Some of these chisels were nine or ten inches in length, and three or four in breadth; but they were, in general, considerably smaller.

Some of their knives are very large, and their blades are crooked; the edge being on the back, or convex part. Most of them seen were about the breadth and

thickness of an iron hoop, and their singular form marks that they were not of European make. Probably they are imitations of their own original instruments used for the same purposes. They sharpen these iron tools upon a coarse slate whetstone, and likewise keep the whole instrument constantly bright.

SECTION V.

Habitations and Furniture. Food, and manner of preparing it.

THE village, which is situated at the entrance of the sound, stands on the side of a pretty steep ascent, extending from the beach to the wood. The houses consist of three ranges or rows, placed at equal distances behind each other, the front row being the largest; and there are a few straggling houses at each end. These rows are intersected by narrow paths, or lanes, at irregular distances, passing upward; but those between the houses are considerably broader. Though this general disposition has some appearance of regularity, there is none in the single houses; for every division made by the paths may either be considered as one or more houses, there being no regular separation to distinguish them by, either within or without. These erections consist of very long broad planks, resting upon the edges of each other, tied, in different parts, with withes of pine-bark. They have only slender posts on the outsides, at considerable distances from each other, to which they are also fastened; but there are some larger poles within, placed aslant. The sides and ends of these habitations are about seven or eight feet in height, but the back part is somewhat higher. The planks, therefore, which compose the roof, slant forward, and, being loose, may be moved at pleasure. They may either be put close to exclude the rain, or separated to admit the light in fine weather.

Upon the whole, however, they are most miserable dwellings, and display very little attention or ingenuity in their construction; for though the side-planks are pretty close to each other in some places, they are quite open in others. Besides, these habitations have no regular doors, and can only be entered by a hole, which the unequal length of the planks has accidentally made. In the sides of the house they have also holes to look out at, serving for windows; but these are very irregularly disposed, without attending, in the least, to the shape and size of them.

Within the habitations is frequently a view from one end to the other of these ranges of building; for though there are some appearances of separations on each side for the accommodation of different persons or families, they do not intercept the sight, and generally consist of pieces of plank, extending from the side to the middle of the house. On the sides of each of these parts is a little bench, about five or six inches higher than the rest of the floor, covered with mats, whereon the family sit and sleep. The length of these benches is generally seven or eight feet, and the breadth four or five. The fire-place, which has neither hearth or chimney, is in the middle of the floor. One house, in particular, was nearly separated from the rest by a close partition; and this was the most regular building of any we had seen. In it there were four of these benches, each holding a single family at the corner; but it had not any separation by boards; and the middle of the house seemed to be common to all the inhabitants.

The irregularity and confusion of their houses is, however, far exceeded by their nastiness and stench. They not only dry their fish within doors, but they also gut them there, which, together with their bones and fragments, thrown upon the ground at meals, occasions several heaps of filth, which are never removed till it becomes troublesome, from their bulk, to pass over them. Every thing about the house stinks of tinned fish, and smoak; and every part of it is as filthy as can be imagined.

Notwithstanding

Notwithstanding all this filth and confusion, many of these houses are decorated with images, which are nothing more than the trunks of large trees, of the height of four or five feet, placed at the upper end of the apartment, with a human face carved on the front, and the hands and arms upon the sides. These figures are too variously painted, and make, upon the whole, a monstrous appearance. These images are generally called *Klumma*; but the names of two particular ones, standing a-breast of each other, at the distance of about three or four feet, were *Natchkoa* and *Matsseta*. The best idea that can be formed of these figures will be from the representation of them in the engravings. A sort of curtain, made of mat, usually hung before them, which the natives were sometimes unwilling to remove; and when they did consent to unveil them, they seemed to express themselves in a very mysterious manner. It seems probable that they sometimes make offerings to them; for if their signs were rightly interpreted, they requested our people to give something to these images, when they drew the mats from before them. From these circumstances it was natural for them to suppose that they were representatives of their gods, or some superstitious symbols; and yet they were held in no very extraordinary degree of estimation; for, with a small quantity of brass or iron, any person might have purchased all of them in the place.

An ingenious artist, who accompanied Captain Cook on the voyage, in drawing a view of the inside of a Nootka house, wherein these figures were represented, was interrupted from proceeding by one of the inhabitants. While he was employed, a man approached him with a large knife in his hand, seemingly displeased, from observing that the eyes of the artist were fixed on two representations of human figures, which were placed at one end of the apartment, carved on planks, of a gigantic proportion, and painted after their custom. As the artist took as little notice of him as possible, and proceeded, the native, in order to prevent him, provided himself with a mat, and placed it in such a manner as to obstruct the view. As the object was too interesting to be omitted, the artist determined to try the effect of a bribe. Accordingly he made an offer of a button from his coat, which, being metal, he thought would have pleased him. This instantly produced the desired effect; for the mat was removed, and the artist was at liberty to proceed as before. He had scarcely made a beginning when the native returned, and renewed his former practice, continuing it till he had parted with every single button; and when he found that he had completely stripped him, he permitted him to proceed without further obstruction.

The furniture of their houses consists principally of chests and boxes of various sizes, piled upon each other, at the sides or ends of the houses; in which are deposited their garments, skins, masks, and other articles that are deemed valuable. Many of them are double, or the upper one serves as a lid to the other. Some have a lid fastened with thongs. Others, that are very large, have a square hole cut in the upper part, for the convenience of putting things in, or taking them out. They are frequently painted black, studded with teeth of animals, or rudely carved with figures of birds, &c. as decorations. They have also square and oblong pails; round wooden cups and bowls; wooden troughs, of about two feet in length, out of which they eat their food; bags of matting, baskets of twigs, &c.

Their implements for fishing, and other things, are hung up, or scattered in different parts of the house, without any kind of order, making, in the whole, a perfect scene of confusion; except on the sleeping benches, which have nothing on them but the mats, which are of a superior quality to those they usually have to sit on in their boats.

The principal fish are herrings and sardines, two species of bream, and some small cod. The herrings and sardines not only serve to be eaten fresh in their season, but to be dried and smoked as stores. The

herrings also afford them another grand resource for food, which is a vast quantity of roe, prepared in a very extraordinary manner. It is stewed upon small branches of the Canadian pine. It is also prepared upon a long sea-grass, which is found in great plenty upon the rocks under water. It is preserved in baskets of mat, and used occasionally, after being dipped in water. It has no disagreeable taste, and serves these people as a kind of winter bread. They also eat the roe of some other large fish, that has a very rancid smell and taste.

Another essential article of their food is the large muscle, which is found in great abundance in the sound. After roasting them in their shells, they are stuck upon long wooden skewers, and taken off as they are wanted to be eaten, as they require no further preparation, though they are sometimes dipped in oil as a sauce. The smaller shell-fish contribute to encrease the general stock, but cannot be considered as a material article.

The porpoise is more common among them as food than any of the sea animals, the flesh and rind of which they cut into large pieces, dry them as they do herrings, and eat them without farther preparation. They have also a very singular manner of preparing a sort of broth from this animal, when in its fresh state. They put some pieces of it into a wooden vessel or pail, in which there is also some water, and throw heated stones into it. This operation is repeatedly performed till the contents are supposed to be sufficiently stewed. The fresh stones are put in, and the others taken out, with a cleft stick, serving as a pair of tongs, the vessel being, for that purpose, always placed near the fire. This is a common dish among them, and seems to be a very strong nourishing food. From these, and other sea animals, they procure oil in great abundance, which they use upon many occasions, mixed with other food, as sauce, and frequently sip it alone with a kind of scoop made of horn.

They probably feed upon other sea animals, such as whales, seals, and sea-otters; the skins of the two last being common amongst them: and they are furnished with implements of all sorts for the destruction of these different animals, though, perhaps, they may not be able, at all seasons, to catch them in great plenty. No great number of fresh skins were to be seen while the ships lay in the sound. Land animals, at the time, appeared to be scarce, as they saw no flesh belonging to any of them; and though their skins were to be had in plenty, they might, perhaps, have been procured by traffic from other tribes.

It plainly appears, from a variety of circumstances, that these people procure the greatest part of their animal food from the sea, excepting a few gulls, and some other birds, which they shoot with their arrows.

Their only winter vegetables seemed to be the Canadian pine branches, and sea-grass; but, as the spring advances, they use others as they come in season. The most common of these were two sorts of liliaceous roots, of a mild sweetish taste, which are mucilaginous, and eaten raw. The next is a root called *abeitu*, and has a taste resembling liquorice. Another small sweetish root, about the thickness of sarsaparilla, is also eaten raw. As the season advances, they have, doubtless, many others which were not seen. For though there is not the least appearance of cultivation among them, there are plenty of alder, gooseberry, and currant bushes. One of the conditions, however, which they seem to require in all food, is, that it should be of the less acrid kind; for they would not touch the leek or garlic, though they sold our people vast quantities of it, when they understood they liked it. They seemed, indeed, not to relish any of their food, and rejected their spirituous liquors, as something disgusting and unnatural.

Small marine animals, in their fresh state, are sometimes eaten raw; though it is their ordinary practice to roast or broil their food, for they are absolute strangers to our method of boiling, as appears from their manner

of preparing porpoise broth. Besides, as they have only wooden vessels, it is impossible for them to perform such an operation. Their manner of eating corresponds with the nastiness of their houses and persons; for the platters and troughs out of which they eat their food seem never to have been washed since their original formation, the dirty remains of a former meal being only swept away by a succeeding one. Every thing solid and tough they tear to pieces with their hands and teeth; for though their knives are employed in cutting off the larger portions, they have not yet endeavoured to reduce these to mouthfuls by the same means, tho' so much more cleanly and convenient. They do not possess even an idea of cleanliness, and constantly eat the roots which are dug from the ground, without attempting to shake off the soil which adheres to them.

It is not certainly known whether they have any set time for their meals, as they were seen at all hours to eat in their canoes. But as several messes of porpoise broth were seen preparing at the village about noon, it is probable that they make a principal meal about that time.

SECTION VI.

Description of the Country. Climate. Vegetable Productions. Quadrupeds. Sea Animals. Birds. Fish. Reptiles. Insects. Minerals. Remarks. Departure.

CAPTAIN COOK gave the appellation of King George's Sound to this inlet on his first arrival; but it was called Nootka by the inhabitants. The entrance is in the east corner of Hope Bay. Its latitude is 49 deg. 33 min. north; and its longitude 233 deg. 12 min. east. The east coast of the bay is covered by a chain of sunken rocks; and near the sound are some islands and rocks above water. The ships entered the sound between two rocky points, lying east-south-east and west-north-west from each other, distant about four miles. The sound widens within these points, and extends in to the northward at least four leagues.

A number of islands, of various sizes, appear in the middle of the sound. The depth of water, not only in the middle of the sound, but also close to some parts of its shore, is from forty-seven to ninety fathoms, or more. Within its circuit the harbours and anchoring places are numerous.

The cove, where our ships anchored, is on the east-side of the sound, and also on the east of the largest island. It is, indeed, covered from the sea, which is its principal recommendation; for it is exposed to the south-east winds, which sometimes blow with great violence, and make great devastation, as was but too apparent in many places.

Upon the sea-coast the land is tolerably high and level; but, within the sound, it rises into steep hills, which have a uniform appearance, ending in roundish tops, with sharp ridges on their sides. Many of these hills are high, and others of a more moderate height; but all of them are covered to their tops with the thickest woods. Some bare spots are to be seen on the sides of some of the hills; but they are not numerous, though they sufficiently shew the general rocky disposition of these hills. They have, indeed, no soil upon them, except what has been produced from rotten mosses and trees, of the depth of about two feet. Their foundations are, indeed, nothing more than stupendous rocks, which are of a grey or whitish cast when exposed to the weather, but, when broken, are of a blueish grey colour. The rocky shores consist entirely of this, and the beaches of the little coves in the sound are composed of fragments of it.

All these coves are furnished with a great quantity of fallen wood lying in them, which is carried in by the tide, and with rills of fresh water sufficient for the use of a ship, which seem to be supplied entirely from the rains and fogs that hover about the tops of the hills. The water of these rills is perfectly clear, and dissolves soap with great ease.

The climate appears to be infinitely milder than that on the east coast of America, under the same parallel of latitude. The mercury in the thermometer never, even in the night, fell lower than 42 degrees; and very often, in the day, it rose to 60 degrees. No frost was perceived on any of the low ground; but, on the contrary, vegetation proceeded very briskly; for grass was seen, at this time, upwards of a foot long.

The trees, of which the woods are principally composed, are the Canadian pine, white cypress, and two or three other sorts of pine. The two first are in the greatest abundance, and, at a distance, resemble each other; though they are easily distinguished on a nearer view, the cypress being of a paler green than the other. In general, the trees grow here with great vigour, and are of a large size. At this early season of the year was seen but little variety of other vegetable productions.

About the rocks, and borders of the woods, were found some strawberry plants, and raspberry, currant, and gooseberry bushes, all in a flourishing state. There were also a few black alder trees, a species of sow-thistle, some crow's-foot with a fine crimson flower, and two sorts of *anthericum*. Some wild rose bushes were seen just budding; some young leeks, a small sort of grass, and some water-cresses, besides a great abundance of *andromeda*. Within the woods were two sorts of under-wood shrubs, unknown to our naturalists.

All the animals seen alive here were two or three racoons, martins, and squirrels. Some of our people, indeed, who landed on the continent on the south-east side of the sound, saw the prints of a bear's feet, not far from the shore. The principal account given of the quadrupeds is taken from the skins which were purchased of the inhabitants; and these were sometimes so mutilated in the heads, tails, and paws, that it could not be distinguished to what animals they belonged; though others were either so perfect, or so well known, that they did not admit of a doubt about them. The most common among them were bears, deer, foxes, and wolves. Bears skins were very plentiful, generally of a shining black colour, but not very large. The deer-skins were not so plentiful, and appeared to belong to what the historians of Carolina call the fallow-deer; though Mr. Pennant distinguishes it by the name of Virginian deer, and thinks it quite a different species from ours. Their foxes are numerous, and of several varieties; the skins of some being yellow, with a black tip at the tale; others of a reddish yellow, intermixed with black; and others of an ash colour, also intermixed with black.

When the skins were so mutilated as to admit of a doubt, our people applied the name of fox or wolf indiscriminately. At length they met with an entire wolf's skin, and it was grey. Here is the common martin, the pine-martin, and another of a lighter brown colour. The ermine is also found in this country, but is small, and not very common. Its hair is not remarkably fine, though the animal is entirely white, except about an inch at the tip of the tail. The racoons and squirrels are such as are common, but the latter is not so large as ours, and has a rusty colour extending the length of the back.

Our naturalists were sufficiently clear respecting the animals already mentioned; but there were two others that they could not, with any certainty, distinguish. One of them was concluded to be the elk or mouse-deer, and the other was conjectured to be the wild cat, or lynx. Hogs, dogs, and goats, have not yet made their appearance in this place. Nor have the natives any knowledge of our brown rats, to which they applied the name they give to squirrels, when they saw them on board the ships.

The sea animals near the coast are whales, porpoises, and seals; the latter, from the skins seen, seemed to be of the common sort. The porpoise is the *phocena*. Though the sea-otter is amphibious, it may be considered as belonging to this class, as living principally in the water. It was doubted, for some time, whether the

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The WHITE BEAR found on the Ice between the northern extremities of Asia & America.



The SEA OTTER found in North America found on the Northwest Coast of America.

the skins, which the natives sold for otter skins, really belonged to that animal; but a short time before their departure, a whole one, just killed, was purchased from some strangers, of which the painter made a drawing. It was young, weighing only twenty-five pounds; of a glossy black colour; but many of the hairs being tipped with white gave it, at first, a greyish cast. The face, throat, and breast, were of a light brown, or yellowish white; and, in many of the skins, that colour extended the whole length of the belly. In each jaw it had six cutting teeth; two in the lower jaw being exceeding small, and placed without, at the base of the two in the middle. In these respects it differs from those found by the Russians, and also in the outer toes of the hind feet not being skirted with a membrane. There also appeared a greater variety in colour than is mentioned by those who describe the Russian sea-otters. It is most probable that these changes of colour naturally take place at the different gradations of life. The very young ones had coarse brown hair, with a little fur underneath; but those of the size of the animal just described had a greater quantity of that substance. After they have attained their full growth, they lose the black colour, which is succeeded by a deep brown. At that period they have a greater quantity of fine fur, and very few long hairs. Some, which were supposed to be older, were of a chestnut brown; and some few were of a perfect yellow. The fur of these creatures is certainly finer than that of any other animal known of; consequently the discovery of this part of North America, where so valuable an article of commerce is to be procured, ought certainly to be considered as a matter of some consequence.

Birds are far from being numerous here, and those that are to be seen are remarkably shy, owing, perhaps, to their being continually harrassed by the natives, either to eat them, or become possessed of their feathers, to be worn as ornaments. These are crows and ravens, not differing in the least from those in England; also a jay or magpie; the common wren, which is the only singing bird heard; the Canadian thrush; the brown eagle, with a white head and tail; a small species of hawk, a heron, and the large-crested American kingfisher. There are also some that have not yet been mentioned by those who have treated on natural history. The two first are a species of wood-peckers. One is somewhat smaller than a thrush, of a black colour on the back, having white spots on the wings; the head, neck, and breast, of a crimson colour; whence it might with propriety be called the yellow-bellied wood-pecker. The other is larger, and more elegant: the back is of a dusky brown colour, richly waved with black: the belly has a reddish cast, with black spots: it has also a black spot on the breast; and the lower part of the wings and tail are of a scarlet colour; the upper part blackish. A crimson streak runs on each side, from the angle of the mouth, a little down the neck. The third and fourth are, one of the finch kind, not larger than a linnet, of a dusky colour, black head and neck, and white bill; and a sand-piper, of a dusky brown colour, with a broad white band across the wings, of the size of a small pidgeon. There are also humming birds, which differ, in some degree, from the numerous sorts already known of this delicate little animal.

The quebrantahuecos, shags, and gulls, were seen off the coast; and the two last were also frequent in the sound. There are two sorts of wild ducks; one of which was black, with a white head; the other white, and had a red bill, but of a larger size. Here are also the greater *lunna*, or diver, which are found in our northern countries. Some swans, too, were once or twice seen flying to the northward. On the shores was found another sand-piper, about the size of a lark, and not unlike the burre: also a plover, very much resembling a common lark.

Though the variety of fish is not very great here, they are more plentiful in quantity than birds. The principal

sorts are the common herring, which are very numerous, though not exceeding seven inches in length; a smaller sort, which, though larger than the anchovy, or sardine, is of the same kind; a silver-coloured bream, and another of a gold brown colour, with narrow blue stripes. It is most probable that the herrings and sardines come in large shoals at stated seasons, as is usual with those kind of fish. The two sorts of breams may be reckoned next to these in quantity; and those which were full grown weighed about a pound. The other fish were scarce, and consisted of a brown kind of sculpin, such as are taken on the coast of Norway; another of a reddish cast; frost fish; a large one, without scales, resembling the bull-head; and a small brownish cod, with whitish spots. Sharks also frequent the sound, the teeth of which many of the natives had in their possession. The other marine animals are a small cruciated medusa, or blubber, star-fish, small crabs, and a large cuttle-fish.

About the rocks there is abundance of large muscles, and also sea-ears. Shells of a pretty large *chama* were found: also some *trochi* of two species, a curious kind of *murex*, rugged wilks, and a snail. Besides these three are some plain cockles and limpets. Many of the muscles are a span long; in some of which there are large pearls, but they are disagreeable both in colour and shape. It is probable that there is red coral either in the sound or on the coast, large bunches of it having been seen in the canoes of the natives.

The only reptiles observed here were brown snakes, about two feet in length, having whitish stripes on the back and sides; and brownish water lizards. The former are so perfectly harmless, that the natives were seen to carry them alive in their hands.

The insect tribe seem to be more numerous: for tho' the season for their appearance was only beginning, several different sorts of butterflies were seen, all of which were common. Some humble bees were found; also some gooseberry moths, a few beetles, two or three sorts of flies, and some musketos.

Though our people found both iron and copper here, they did not imagine that either of them belonged to this place. They did not even see the ores of any metal, except a coarse red ochry substance, used by the natives in painting or staining themselves. This may, perhaps, contain a small quantity of iron; as may also a black and white pigment made use of for the same purpose.

Exclusive of the rock, which constitutes the shores and mountains, were seen, among the natives, some articles of hard black granite, which was neither very compact, or fine grained; also a greyish whetstone, the common oil-stone, and a black sort, little inferior to the hone-stone. The natives were seen to use transparent leafy glimmer, and a brown leafy or martial sort. They had also pieces of rock crystal. The two first articles were probably to be obtained near the spot, as they had considerable quantities of them; but the latter, it may be supposed, came from a greater distance, or is extremely scarce; for the natives would not part with it without a very valuable consideration.

Iron is called by the natives *seekemaile*, a name which they also give to tin, and other white metals. It being so common among them, our people were anxious to discover how it could be conveyed to them. As soon as they arrived in the sound they perceived that they had a knowledge of traffic, and an inclination to pursue it; and were afterwards convinced that they had not acquired this knowledge from a cursory interview with any strangers, but it seemed habitual to them, and as a practice in which they were skilled.

With whom they carried on this traffic admitted of doubt; for though several articles of European manufacture were seen among them, or such, at least, as had been derived from some civilized nation, particularly brass and iron, it does not follow that they were received immediately from these nations: for our people never could obtain the least information of their havin

seen ships like theirs, or of their having been engaged in commerce with such people. Many circumstances concur to prove this beyond a doubt. On the arrival of the ships, they were earnest in their enquiries whether our people meant to settle amongst them, informing them at the same time, that they gave them wood and water from motives of friendship. This sufficiently proves that they considered themselves as proprietors of the place, and dreaded superiority: for it would have been an unnatural enquiry if any ships had been here before, and supplied themselves with wood and water, and then departed; for they might then reasonably expect that others would do the same. It must be admitted, indeed, that they exhibited no marks of surprise at beholding the ships; but this may, with great propriety, be attributed to their natural indolence of temper, and their wanting a thirst of curiosity. They were never startled at the report of a musket, till they one day shewed that their head-dresses were impenetrable to their spears and arrows, when one of our people shot a musket-ball through one of them that had been six times folded. Their astonishment at this plainly indicated their ignorance of the effect of fire-arms. This was afterwards very frequently confirmed when they saw our people shoot birds, at which they appeared greatly confounded. The explanation of the piece, together with the nature of its operation, with the aid of shot and ball, struck them so forcibly, as to afford convincing proof of their having no previous ideas of this matter.

Captain Cook mentions, that though some account of a voyage to this coast by the Spaniards in 1774 or 1775, had arrived in England before he sailed, these circumstances sufficiently prove that these ships had never touched at Nootka. It has since, indeed, appeared that they were not within two degrees of Nootka; and probably the inhabitants of that place never heard of those Spanish ships.

They use their tools with as much dexterity as the longest practice can acquire. The most natural conjecture, therefore, is, that they trade for their iron with other Indian tribes, who may have some communication with European settlements upon that continent, or receive it through several intermediate nations. By the same means they probably obtain their brass and copper.

Not only the rude materials, but some manufactured articles seem to find their way hither. The brass ornaments for noses are made in so masterly a manner, that the Indians cannot be supposed capable of fabricating them. The materials seem to be European, as the American tribes are ignorant of the method of making brass; though copper has been frequently met with,

and, from its ductility, might easily be fashioned into any shape, and polished. If such articles are not used by our traders to Hudson's Bay and Canada, in their traffic with the natives, they must have been introduced at Nootka from Mexico, whence it is probable two silver table-spoons were originally derived.

Captain Cook remarks, that as these people so essentially differ from the natives of the islands in the Pacific Ocean, in their persons, customs, and language, it cannot be supposed that their respective progenitors belonged to the same tribe, when they emigrated into those places where their descendants were found.

Our people having completed their designs, and put the ships into a proper condition for sailing, they got under way. They were attended by the natives till they were almost out of the sound; some in their canoes, and others on board the ships. One of the chiefs, who had particularly attached himself to *Captain Cook*, was among the last who parted from them. The Captain, a little time before he went, made him a small present, for which he received, in return, a beaver-skin of a much superior value. This occasioned him to make some addition to his present, which pleased the chief so highly, that he presented to the Captain the beaver-skin cloak which he then wore, and of which he was particularly fond. Struck with this instance of generosity, and wishing him not to be a sufferer by his gratitude, *Captain Cook* insisted upon his acceptance of a new broad-sword, with a brass hilt, with which he appeared greatly delighted. The officers were earnestly importuned by the chief, and many of his countrymen, to pay them another visit, who, by way of inducement, promised to procure a large stock of skins.

Captain Cook gives it as his firm opinion, that whoever may come after him to this place will find the natives prepared with no inconsiderable supply of skins, being an article of trade which they could observe the Europeans were eager to possess, and which the Europeans found could be purchased to great advantage.

Thus have we, as proposed, attended particularly to those parts of North America, continental, insular, &c. &c. which have been discovered, visited, and described, by our celebrated navigator Captain Cook. In our description of South America, we shall, with the same precision, relate every particular that can be derived from his accurate and authentic accounts of the respective places he visited in that division of this quarter of the globe; ever desirous of holding to view the transactions of a man who has so essentially contributed to the instruction and entertainment of the public, in the most important points of human speculation.

C H A P. IV.

B R I T I S H

A M E R I C A.

S E C T I O N . I.

Countries bordering on Hudson's Bay, Labrador or New Britain, &c. Account of their Discovery, Situation, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Animals, particular Description of the Beaver, Vegetables, Articles of Trade, &c. Peculiar method of preserving Animal Food.

IF we were to extend the country claimed by Great Britain, as far as her mariners have discovered to the northward, we might stretch it to 81 deg. 30 min. north latitude; for so far our countrymen, Baffin and Hudson, sailed, and gave their respective names to the bays called after them.

The knowledge we have obtained of these countries is owing to the repeated attempts that have been made to discover a north-west passage to the East Indies. This passage was attempted by Forbisher in the year 1576. He discovered the strait that bears his name, together with the main land of New Britain, or Labrador; but failing in the principal design, it was laid aside till the year 1585, when it was revived by John Davis, who surveyed the coasts of Labrador, but did not extend the discoveries of his predecessor. Baffin and Hudson, as before mentioned, penetrated as far as 81 deg. 30 min. north latitude, some years after. The latter of these wintered in this region of frost and snow, and would probably have effected the discovery, had not his men mutinied, and committed him, with seven

seven of his faithful adherents, to the mercy of the icy sea in an open boat, where they perished. The next attempt was made in 1746, by Captain Ellis, who wintered here, but also failed in it. In 1761 the design was revived by a Captain Christopher, at the instance of the Hudson's Bay Company; but he found neither inlet or river which could contribute to the interests of commerce. In December 1770, the same company caused a journey to be taken by land, which was performed by a gentleman in their service, attended by some trusty northern Indians. In this he was employed more than eighteen months, during which he proceeded to latitude 72 deg. His most western distance from the coast of Hudson's Bay was near 600 miles, and a vast track of continent stretched farther on in that direction. These regions are inhabited by different tribes of Indians, who also go under various denominations, as Dog-ribbed, Copper-coloured, and Northern Indians.

Whilst *Captain Cook* was employed in his last voyage, a considerable object of which was to explore the western coast of North America in high latitudes, and to ascertain if, by means of any large rivers, the interior parts of that continent could be rendered accessible by shipping, and a communication opened with Lake Superior, the armed brig *Lion* was sent out, in the summer of 1776, to Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, to explore the coasts, and obtain a passage on that side, with a view to co-operate with *Captain Cook*, who, it was supposed, would, about that time, be trying for a passage on the opposite side of America. This attempt not being made to the satisfaction of the board of admiralty, another commander was sent out the next year, in the same ship, for the same purpose; but this voyage proved no more satisfactory than the former.

The most northern part of America which may properly be said to belong to Great Britain, particularly the countries bordering on Hudson's Bay, are situated between 50 and 62 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 95 deg. of west longitude. They are bounded on the north by unknown lands and seas about the pole, on the south by the Gulph of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by unknown lands.

So intensely cold is the climate, that Mr. Ellis, who wintered in only 57 deg. 30 min. north latitude, was scarce able to preserve his own life, and the lives of his party, although every precaution was taken to fence against the cold, by constructing a house of thick pieces of timber, and each crevice close stuffed with moss, and plaistered over with clay; yet, at the beginning of November the cold became so intense, that all the bottled beer became frozen, although packed up in tow, and placed near a good fire. The cold became insupportable abroad, unless they were entirely covered in the warmest furs. No kind of liquid, indeed, could withstand the cold; for brandy, and even spirits of wine, froze; the latter only to a consistence of oil. If the men touched iron, or any other solid surface, their fingers were frozen fast to it: and if, in drinking a dram of brandy out of a glass, they chanced to touch the glass with their tongue or lips, in pulling it away the skin was left upon it.

The soil is, in general, barren in the northern parts, but in some of the southern it is tolerably fertile.

The mountains in this country, towards the north, are of a tremendous height, and perpetually covered with snow, which is the cause of the extreme rigour of the climate, and the barrenness of the soil.

The rivers are numerous, and called, in general, after the names of the navigators by whom they were first discovered. The principal bays are those of Baffin and Hudson; in the latter of which are several others of less note; and the straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle.

The animals in the woods here are moose-deer, elks, stags, bears, tigers, buffalos, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, ermines, squirrels, wild cats, hares, &c.

Of the feathered kind are geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and many others, both wild and tame.

The seas abound with whales, seals, cod, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and the rivers and fresh waters with pike, perch, carp, and tench.

All the animals of these countries are cloathed in winter with a close, soft, warm fur. In the summer, which holds only for three months, they are, as in other places, of a variety of colours; but as soon as the winter approaches they gradually change, the beasts, and most of the birds, becoming of the colour of the snow. Indeed, every thing, animate or inanimate, is white. Even the dogs and cats carried from England to Hudson's Bay are subject to the same alteration, and acquire a much longer, softer, and thicker fur, than they have in their own climate.

Here it may be proper to remark, that the animals of America, in general, are neither so large or so fierce as those of Asia and Africa. But then it is to be observed, that if the quadrupeds of America are small, they are more numerous than those of the old world. The goat exported from Europe will, in a few generations, become, indeed, much less, but it will also become more prolific, producing, instead of one or two kids at a time, five, six, and sometimes more.

As the inhabitants of this country are cloathed in the skins of beavers, and as their principal trade consists in those skins, it will be proper to give a description of that curious animal. A large beaver is about twenty-eight inches in length, from the hind part of the head to the root of the tail, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; but their colour is different; in some places they are black, in others white, and in others almost of the colour of the deer. It is an amphibious animal. The beaver, or, as it is likewise called, the castor, lives to a great age. The females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. Their jaws are furnished with two cutters and eight grinders: the upper cutter is two inches and a half in length, and the lower something longer. The upper jaw projects over the lower one. The head is shaped like that of a rat, and the tail like the blade of a paddle. It is about fourteen inches in length, and about an inch thick. It is covered with a scaly skin; the scales being a quarter of an inch long, and folding over each other like those of a fish.

The industry, foresight, and good management of these animals, are extremely surprising, and scarce credible to those who never saw them. When they want to form a settlement, three or four, or more of them, assemble together, and first pitch upon a place where they may have provisions, such as the bark of trees, roots, or grass, with every thing necessary for erecting their edifices, which must be surrounded with water: and if there be neither a convenient lake or pond, they make one, by stopping the course of some brook or river. For this purpose they cut down trees, above the place where they are resolved to build, and take their measures so well, as always to make the tree fall towards the water, that they may have the less distance to roll it when they have cut off the branches. This done, they float it to the place appointed, and these pieces they cut bigger or less, to suit their convenience. Sometimes they use the trunks of large trees, which they lay flat in the water. At others they fasten stakes in the bottom of the channel, and then interweaving small branches, fill up the vacancies with clay, mud, and moss, in such a manner, as renders the dam very tight and secure. In these works their tails serve them for carts and trowels, and their teeth for saws and axes. Their paws supply the place of hands, and their feet serve instead of oars.

The construction of their houses is no less admirable: they are generally built upon piles, at some distance from the shore, but sometimes close to the banks of the rivers. They first make holes at the bottom of the water for planting six posts, upon which each of their edifices is built in a most curious manner. Their form is round, with a flat roof. The walls are two feet thick, and sometimes

sometimes more: the are formed of the same materials as the dams just mentioned; and every part is so well finished that no air can possibly enter. About two thirds of the edifice is raised above the water: in this they lodge, and are careful to keep it clean. They have generally three or four different avenues to each house, which they enter under water. To provide provisions against the winter, they draw the sticks they cut from the trees, and thrusting one end into the mud, let them lie under the water to preserve the bark green and tender for their winter provisions. There are sometimes found eight or ten beavers in one house, at others not more than three or four; and let them be as numerous as they will, they all lodge upon one floor.

The beavers are excellent food; but the tongue and tail are the most delicious parts. The Indians sometimes roast these animals in the same manner as we do pigs, first burning off their fur.

Besides the fur, the beaver produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles. The value of this drug is well known.

The lands near the upper parts of Hudson's Bay produce large timber, and plenty of herbage, and, if properly cultivated, might yield corn. Those parts which are low and marshy produce juniper, birch, poplar, and a small tree of the spruce or fir kind; but there is little other herbage besides the moss.

In the year 1670 a charter was granted to a company consisting of about nine or ten persons, known by the appellation of the Hudson's Bay Company, for an exclusive trade to that bay, which they have carried on ever since with great benefit to themselves, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The chief commodities are fur and hides. This company generally employ four ships. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay. The commodities with which the company furnish the natives are guns, powder, shot, knives, hatchets, beads, cloaths both for men and women, tobacco, powder horns, combs, kettles, looking-glasses, and various other articles, the principal part of which are the manufactures of Great Britain, and in the mercantile phrase deemed drugs. Their exports and imports are not so considerable as they were before the conquest of Canada.

The Europeans, who reside in the factories here, have a peculiar method of preserving their animal food, whether flesh or fish, six or seven months, free from putrefaction. The fish are caught in the winter by cutting holes in the ice, to which they come for air. As soon as taken out of the water, they are immediately frozen and stiff, but may be thawed again by being immersed in cold water. In this manner the salt provisions are thawed and freshened here. The meat is let down through a hole in the ice into the water, and, in a short time, becomes soft, pliable, and eats well; whereas if roasted or boiled in its frozen state, it would eat as if rotten, and be nauseous to the palate. Thus they are well supplied with flesh, fish, and fowl all the year round.

Persons, Drefs Habitations, Subsistence, Manners, Customs, &c. of the Indians on the Coasts of Hudson's Bay.

THE natives situated on the western coast of Hudson's Bay, comprehending the New North and South Wales, are of the middle size, and of a copper colour. They have black eyes, and long, lank, black hair; but their features vary as in Europe. They are of a cheerful disposition, good-natured, affable, friendly, and honest in their dealings.

In summer the men are cloathed in a close coat made of a blanker, which they buy of the English settled in their neighbourhood. They have a pair of leather stockings, which reach so high as to serve also for breeches; and their shoes are made of the same materials.

The cloaths of the women differ from those of the men only in their generally wearing a petticoat, that in winter comes a little lower than their knees. Their ordinary apparel is made of the skins of deer, otters, or beaver, with the hair on the fur of them. The sleeves of their upper habit are generally tied on with strings at the shoulders, so that their arm-pits, even in the depth of winter, are exposed to the cold, which they imagine contributes to their health. Their diseases, indeed, are but few, and those chiefly arise from colds caught after drinking spirituous liquors, which they buy of the English: and it is a melancholy truth, that those who live near the settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company, are, by drunkenness, become meagre, small, indolent, and hardly able to encounter the hardships of the country; while those who live at a distance are hardy, vigorous, and active.

They dwell in tents covered with moose and deer-skins sewed together. These are of a circular form, probably on account of its being most capacious and convenient for their sitting round the fire, which is in the middle. They are formed of poles, which are extended at the bottom, and at the top lean to the center, where an opening is left to admit the light, and let out the smoak. They strew the floor with the tops of pine-trees, and lie with their feet to the fire, and their heads to the sides of the tent. The entrance is generally on the south-west side, and they go in by lifting up one of the skins, to which is fastened a piece of stick to make it flap close.

They have no dependance for subsistence on the fruits of the earth, but live entirely on the animals they take in hunting, or catch in traps. They every season make a prodigious slaughter among the deer, from the absurd opinion, that the more they destroy the greater plenty will succeed; hence they sometimes leave three or four hundred dead on the plains, taking out only their tongues, and leaving their carcasses either to rot, or be devoured by the wild beasts. At other times they attack them in the water, and bring great numbers on floats to the factories. They also live upon birds, and even feed on eagles, hawks, crows, and owls, as well as on partridges, wild-geese, and ducks. They generally boil their flesh, and eat it by itself, drinking the water it is boiled in, which they esteem very wholesome: and in the same manner they dress their fish.

These ignorant people have many amiable qualities. They are influenced in their behaviour by natural love of rectitude, that restrains them from all acts of violence and injustice, as effectually as the most rigorous laws. The chiefs of every family or tribe, who are generally chosen from among the most ancient of the people, usually for their skill in hunting, their experience in trade, and their valour in war, in which they frequently engage, direct those who reside with them in their different employments; but their advice is rather followed through deference and respect, than from any compulsive obligation.

They have, however, some customs which must appear very whimsical, and others that are extremely cruel. It is esteemed a great offence for a woman to stride over the legs of a man when he sits on the ground; and they even think it beneath them to drink out of the same vessel with their wives. They have another custom that must appear shocking to every humane mind, and in which they are, in some measure, imitated by the Hot-tentots. The latter expose their parents, when labouring under the infirmities of old age, to perish with hunger, or to be devoured by wild beasts; and these wretches strangle theirs: for when their parents grow so old as to be unable to support themselves by their own labour, they require their children to strangle them, and their performing it is esteemed an act of duty. This is done in the following manner: The old person's grave being dug, he goes into it, and, after having conversed and smoked his pipe, or perhaps drank a dram or two with his children, he informs them that he is ready; upon which two of them put a thong about his

his neck, one standing on one side, and the other opposite to him, which they pull violently till he expires: they then cover him with earth, and over that erect a kind of rough monument of stones. Such old people as have no children require this office of their friends; but in this case it is not always complied with.

They have also a very strange maxim of policy, which is obliging their women to procure frequent abortions, by the use of a certain herb, common to that country, in order to ease themselves of the burden of a helpless family.

The natives dwelling on the eastern coast of Hudson's Bay are those called Esquimaux, which name is derived from an Indian word that signifies *eaters of raw flesh*; for after thoroughly drying the flesh of the beasts they kill, they eat it without any other preparation. They are of a middle size, robust, and inclinable to be fat. Their heads are large, and their faces round and swarthy; their eyes are black, small and sparkling; their noses flat, their lips thick, and their hair lank and black: they have broad shoulders, and their limbs are proportionable; but their feet are very small.

The behaviour of the Esquimaux residing on the east side of Hudson's Bay is chearful and sprightly; but some are subtle, cunning and deceitful, great flatterers, and much addicted to pilfer from strangers; easily rendered bold by encouragement; but as easily frightened; and so attached to their own country, that some, who have been taken prisoners by the Southern Indians when they were boys, and brought to the factories, have, for several years, regretted their absence from their native country, and the enjoyment of what they loved when they were there: thus one of them, after having been fed on English diet, being present when an Englishman was cutting up a seal, from which the train-oil ran very plentifully, scooped up what he could save with his hands, and swallowing it cried, "Ah! commend me to my own dear country, where I could get my belly full of this."

The mens cloaths are made of seal skins, and sometimes of the skins of land and sea-fowl sewed together: their coats have a hood like a capuchin, are close from the breast before, and reach no lower than the middle of the thigh: the breeches are close before and behind, gathered like a purse, with a string, and tied about their waists: they have several pairs of boots and socks, which they wear one over another, to keep them warm and dry. The difference between the dress of the men and that of the women is, that the latter have a narrow flap behind to their jacket that reaches to their heels. Their hoods are likewise larger and wider at the shoulders, for the sake of carrying their children in them at their backs; and their boots, which are a great deal wider, are commonly stuck out with whalebone, because when they want to put a child out of their arms they slip it into one of their boots till they can take it up again. A few of them wear shifts of seals bladders sewed together. Their cloaths are, in general, sewed very neatly: this is performed with an ivory needle, and the sinews of a deer split fine and used for thread. They discover a good deal of taste in adorning them with stripes of different coloured skins sewed in the manner of borders, cuffs, and robings for their cloaths, which altogether appear handsome as well as convenient.

One singular part of their dress is their snow eyes, as they properly call them. These are bits of wood, or ivory, formed to cover the organs of sight, and tied at the back of the head: in each piece are two slits of the same length with the eyes, but narrower, thro' which they see distinctly. This invention prevents snow blindness, a very painful disorder occasioned by the brightness of the light reflected from the snow, especially in the season they call spring. Their use strengthens the sight, and becomes so habitual to them, that when they would observe an object at a great distance, they commonly look through them as we do through a perspective glass.

Their instruments for fishing and fowling discover a genius for invention. Their darts and harpoons are well made, as are also their bows and arrows. Their boats are easy of carriage and quick in motion. The frames are made of wood or whale bone. They rub the seams with a kind of size made of seals blubber. In these boats they carry their little conveniences and their instruments for killing whales and other sea animals. When they have killed a whale they tow it to shore with their canoes, and strip it of the fat, which not only serves them for food, but to burn in their lamps during winter.

On their going to sea in order to catch fish they generally take in their boats a bladder filled with train oil, as our people do a dram bottle, and seem to drink the contents with the same relish; and when their stock is out they have been seen to draw the bladder through their teeth in order to extract the very last drop of this precious liquid. They are probably convinced by experience of the salutary effects of such coarse kind of oil in their rigorous climate, which occasions their fondness for it.

It is observed by voyagers, that in sailing to the northward in these regions every thing dwindles; the men become lower in stature, and the very trees sink into brushwood.

SECTION II.

C A N A D A.

Situation. Boundaries. Climate. Soil. Animal and vegetable Productions. Rivers. Lakes. Principal Places. Laws. Commerce, &c.

CANADA is situated between 45 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and between 68 and 90 deg. of east longitude. It is bounded on the north by New Britain, on the east by Nova Scotia, on the south by the Apalachian mountains, and on the west by unknown lands.

The climate and soil vary greatly in this extensive track. Along the banks of the river St. Lawrence it is excessive cold in winter, and as intensively hot in summer. The rest of the country is intersected with large woods, lakes and rivers, which render it still colder. The soil, however, in many places, is fertile, producing grain and vegetables in abundance.

Canada abounds in stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of different kinds, hares, rabbits, &c. In the southern parts are wild bulls, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, swarm with beavers, of which we have already given a description.

The Canadians have different ways of taking beavers. They sometimes shoot them, and at other times catch them in traps, which last method they prefer, because it does not damage the skin. In winter they break the ice at some distance from their huts, and placing stakes in the water they fasten nets to them. The beavers being disturbed in their huts, by a dog sent in for that purpose, immediately take to the water, when they are soon entangled in the net.

There is a diminutive species of beaver called the Musk Rat, the tail of which produces a very strong scent.

There are two sorts of bears in this country, one of a reddish, and the other of a blackish colour.

The Indians scarce undertake any thing with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war; this chase supplying them both with food and raiment. The bears lodge, during the winter either in hollow trees or caves; and, as they lay up no provisions, have no food during that season.

The bear is not naturally fierce, except when wounded or pinched with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July; and it is somewhat dangerous to meet them till their hunger is satisfied, and they recover their flesh, which they do very suddenly. They are fond of grapes, and most kinds of fruit. When provisions are scarce in the woods they venture out among the settlements, and make great havock of the Indian corn, and sometimes kill the swine. Their chief weapons are their fore-paws, with which they will hug any animal they seize immediately to death.

The buffalo of Canada is larger than that of Europe. The body is covered with a very valuable black wool, and the hide is remarkably soft and pliant.

Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country: their flesh is white, and good to eat, and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common; and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live on water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon them and devour them.

The Canadian poll-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of its tail, which is as black as jet. When pursued, he lets fly his urine, which, it is said, infects the air for a quarter of a mile round; for which reason he is called by the inhabitants the devil's brat, or the stinkard.

The Canadian rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and as big again as the European. The female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued.

There are three sorts of squirrels: that called the flying squirrel will leap forty feet and more from one tree to another. This little animal is very lively and easily tamed, and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in the sleeve, pocket, or muff: he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among twenty persons.

The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog: when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig.

The hares and rabbits differ little from those of Europe, only they turn grey in winter.

Some of the rivers breed crocodiles, which differ but little from those of the Nile.

Among the other animals of this country which most deserve the attention of the naturalist is the elk, which is about the size of a horse or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling sickness, are ascribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. They live in cold countries, and when the winter affords them no grass they gnaw the barks of trees.

Of the feathered creation here are eagles, falcons, partridges, red, grey and black, with long tails, which they spread out like a fan, and make a fine appearance. Here are also snipes, ducks, geese, turkeys, &c. Of singing birds there are thrushes and goldfinches resembling those of Europe; but the chief singing bird of Canada is the white bird, a species of ortolan very shewy and remarkable for proclaiming the return of spring.

The lakes are large and numerous; the chief are Lake Superior, which is 100 leagues in length, 70 broad, and contains several islands; the lakes Michigan, Illinois, Hurons, Ontario, Frontenac, Champlain, &c. Of the rivers, which are innumerable, the principal are, the Great River St. Lawrence, St. John, Trois Rivières, &c. The Bay of St. Lawrence is entered between Cape Retz in Newfoundland and Cape Breton; and after doubling Cape Rose, you steer into the river of the same name. Towards the south lie the Bay and Point of Gaspey: below this Bay is a Steep, called the Pierced Island, from an aperture in its middle, through which a sloop might pass with her

fails up. At a league distance from the Bored Island lies the island Bonaventure; and at a league distance from that the island Miscon, which has an excellent harbour, and is eight leagues in circumference. A spring of fresh water spouts up to a considerable height in the offing, not far from this island. The next object that presents itself in the river St. Lawrence is the island Anticosti; and the current setting strongly in upon it renders the navigation here very dangerous, in case of a calm, especially as the island is lined with breakers. This island is narrow; but lies in the middle of the river, and extends about forty leagues from north-east to south-west.

After passing this island the navigation becomes more tolerable; but still great precaution must be used. The mounts Notre Dame and Lewis lie on the larboard side: near the latter are some plantations. The next point is Trinity Point, which must be avoided with great care. A little higher are the Paps of Montani, so called from the appearance of the mountain, situated about two leagues from the shore. The land in the neighbourhood is not only unprofitable, but appears frightful, being covered with rocks, sands, and impenetrable thickets: it contains, however, plenty of game. On the other side the river, and advancing two leagues into its bed, lies the shoal of Manicouagu, which is the most dangerous in the river: it is named from a river that falls from the mountains of Labrador, and otherwise called the river of St. Barnabas, and the Black River. From this to Green Island the navigation is slow and uncertain, and the shores uncomfortable and uninhabited. Somewhat higher lies the river Saguenay, which carries ships 25 leagues above its mouth, where is an excellent harbour called Tadoussac; in sailing from which great care must be taken to avoid the Red Island or Cape Rouge, which is a dangerous rock of that colour, whose surface is equal to the water, and often proves fatal to shipping.

Many voyagers are of opinion, if the Canadian fishery was improved it would be more beneficial than the fur trade. Besides a great variety of other fish in the lakes and rivers, particularly that of St. Lawrence, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaife, salmon-trouts, turtles, lobsters, the chaourafou, sturgeon, the achigau, and the gilthead. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature. His head resembles that of a dog: he has four very short legs, of which the fore ones have nails; but the hind ones terminate in fins. The largest weigh 200 pounds, and are of different colours. Their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in its oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather. Their skins make excellent coverings for trunks; and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure. It has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and is a very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. The sturgeon is from eight to twelve feet long and proportionably thick, but there is a small species, the flesh of which is very delicate.

In Canada are many reptiles, among which the rattle-snake is the most remarkable for size and venom. The bite of this snake is mortal, if the root of a certain plant is not immediately applied to the wound.

The cultivated parts of this country yield large crops of Indian corn, barley, rye and other grain. Melons and grapes are produced here, as also the hop plant. The meadow grounds that are well watered yield excellent grass, and feed numbers of cattle. Tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated.

The uncultivated parts of Canada contain the greatest forests in the world. They form one continued wood unplanted by the hands of men, and to all appearance

pearance as old as the creation. Nothing can be more magnificent to the view. The trees lose themselves in the clouds: and such is the prodigious variety of species, that even amongst those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one, perhaps, that is acquainted with half the number.

This province produces two sorts of pine, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; the male and female maple, white and red elms, and poplars. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also cherry-trees, plumb-trees, and other fruit-trees, similar to those in Europe. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and the whole country abounds in coals.

The principal towns in Canada are Quebec, Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, and Montreal. Niagara, though not extensive, is distinguished by a famous cataract, between 7 and 800 feet high, half a league broad, the water of which runs so violently, that all beasts attempting to cross it a quarter of a league above are swallowed up. It tumbles off the precipice with such fury, that it makes an arch under which three men may pass a-breast without danger.

Here it is necessary to observe, that the French comprehended, under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claims part of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the east; and, to the west, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they were able to cultivate, lay chiefly on the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and the numerous smaller rivers which it receives. This being reduced by the British arms in the glorious year 1759, has been since founded into a British province, called the province of Quebec, of which the capital is a city of the same name, situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, about 140 leagues from Cape Rouge or Rosiers. It is built on a rock, and divided into an upper and lower town. The haven is safe and commodious. The houses in both towns are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. Before the city was taken by the English it made a very fine appearance.

Among the principal edifices were the episcopal palace; the fort or citadel, the residence of the governor-general; the house and church of the Recollects; the church of the Ursuline nuns, in which is the tomb of M. Montcalm, who commanded the French, and was mortally wounded, at the battle of Quebec, (in which, also, fell the gallant Wolfe, who commanded the English;) the sumptuous college of the Jesuits, the intendant's house, the royal magazines, &c. &c.

The fortifications of Quebec, at the time it was taken by the British arms, were as complete as it was possible to render them.

In sailing up the river St. Lawrence from Quebec to Montreal, which is 170 miles, the eye is delighted with beautiful landscapes, the banks, in many places, being very steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals; and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony, tho' but few towns or villages. Many fine islands are interspersed in the river, and afford a picturesque view. After passing the Richlieu Islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the voyager thinks himself transplanted to another climate; but this is only to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers, which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who come to trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins.

Montreal is situated on an island formed by the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth. While the French had possession of Canada,

both the city and island of Montreal were private property, and so well improved, that the whole island was a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. When it was reduced by General Amherst, it was populous. The houses were built in an handsome manner, and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been improved by the English. It is nearly as large as Quebec; but since its conquest by the British arms it has suffered much by fire.

Before the conquest of the province of Canada, the different tribes of Indians inhabiting it were almost innumerable. But these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond.

In the year 1774 an act was passed by the Parliament of Great Britain, allowing the inhabitants of the province of Quebec, professing the Roman Catholic religion, the free exercise of the same, subject to the King's supremacy. By the same act their clergy may enjoy their accustomed dues and rights, but with respect only to persons of their own religion; for a right is reserved to his Majesty to make a suitable provision for the Protestant clergy. In matters of property, reference is to be had to the laws of Canada; but criminal cases are to be determined by the laws of England.

While the French were in possession of this country the Indians supplied them with peltry: and the French had traders who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the most remote parts of America, amongst people unknown to any other Europeans. Thus they habituated the Indians to commerce, and they visited the French in their settlements. For this purpose people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. Many solemnities were observed on these occasions; guards were placed, and the governor assisted, to preserve order in such a concourse, composed of so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great tumults happened; and the Indians being so fond of brandy, frequently gave all their merchandize for a small quantity of that spirituous liquor.

It is very remarkable, that many of these Indians actually passed by our settlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled upwards of 200 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchased the commodities cheaper at the former place. So great an ascendancy had the French gained, by their insinuating address, over the minds of these people.

Since the English became possessed of Canada, their exports to Great Britain, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, have greatly increased, as well as the imports from Great Britain. Hence the value and importance of this trade must be evident. It would soon be increased to a great degree, were the river St. Lawrence always open. But the excessive cold, which continues there from December to April, renders all navigation impracticable. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevent large ships from coming to that emporium of inland commerce.

SECTION II.

NOVA SCOTIA, OR NEW SCOTLAND.

Name, Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Revolutions, Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS country obtained the name of Nova Scotia from Sir William Alexander, secretary to King James I. that monarch having made him the first grant of lands in it.

Nova

Nova Scotia is situated between the 43d and 49th degrees of north latitude. It is about 350 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and bounded on the north by the river St. Lawrence, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the same, and on the west by Canada and New England.

A great part of the country consists of the peninsula that is formed by the Bay of Fundy, Chenigto, and Green Bay; all the coast of which, from Cape Sable on the west, to Cape Canso on the east, is lined with shoals or sands. Besides the bays above-mentioned, there is a great number of others all along the coast, particularly Gaspé, Chaleurs, and Chedibucto, on the north-east; the Bay of Islands, Chebucto, and La Here, on the south; and the Bay of Annapolis on the south side of the Bay of Fundy. In these bays, and other parts of the coast, are many fine roads and havens. The chief capes are those of Rosieres and Gaspé, on the north-east; Capes Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Port, Epis, Fogery, and Canso, on the east; Capes Blanco, Vert, Theodore, Dore, La Heve, and Negro, on the south; Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the south-west. The rivers and lakes are very numerous. Of the former the most material are those of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north and south, and fall into the Bay of Fundy; and those of Ristgouche and Nipisiquit, which run from west to east, and fall into the Gulph of St. Lawrence; and that of Chebucto, that falls into the Atlantic. Of the latter, those called Kefeben and Freneuse are very large: but there are many that have not yet received any particular names.

The climate of this country, through the sudden transition from heat to cold, has been found unfavourable to European constitutions. A seven months intense cold is generally succeeded by a heat as intense, without the intervening and refreshing seasons of spring and autumn; added to which, the country is enveloped in the gloom of a fog a great part of the year.

In such an unfavourable climate little produce can be expected from the soil, which being thin and barren, the corn is of a thrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. There are tracks, however, to the southward, which are fertile; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is, in general, very proper for ship building.

There are the same animals here as in the neighbouring provinces, as deer, beavers, otters, wild fowl, and all species of game. Many kinds of European quadrupeds and fowls have been sent here from time to time, and thrive well. The fish begin to spawn at the close of March, when they enter the rivers in vast shoals. Herrings come up in April, and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage to Nova Scotia is Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued

range of cod fishing banks, and excellent large harbours.

This country has often reverted from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation. It was ceded to the French by the treaty of Breda in 1661; but being afterwards taken by the English, it was, by the treaty of Utrecht, yielded up to them.

From divers political motives, a resolution was taken in the year 1749, to form a settlement in this province at the expence of government. Pursuant to the same, 3000 British families were transported hither, and a town was erected on the Bay of Chebucto, and called Halifax, in honour of the Earl of Halifax, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement.

The town of Halifax is very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with an excellent harbour for shipping. It has an intrenchment, strengthened with forts of timber. The trade of the inhabitants is in fish, furs, and naval stores.

The other towns of less note are Annapolis-Royal, which, though but small, was once the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing 1000 vessels at anchor, in the utmost security.

St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name.

Before Canada was ceded to the English, that colony suffered greatly from the incursions of the Indians, in so much that the people could hardly extend themselves beyond the reach of the cannon of the fort, or attend their works, even in that confined circle, without the greatest danger.

In the year 1784 this province was divided into two governments, viz. New Scotland and New Brunswick. The latter is bounded on the westward of the river St. Croix by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of Quebec; to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay of Chaleurs; to the eastward by the said bay to the Gulph of St. Lawrence, to the bay called Bay Verte; to the south by a line in the center of the Bay of Fundy, from the center of St. Croix aforesaid to the mouth of the Musquat river; by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due east line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great. By them new towns have been raised, particularly Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, contains a great number of houses, and many many thousand inhabitants.

C H A P. V.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

WITHOUT entering on the particulars relative to the war between Great Britain and her American Colonies, which terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, as these are universally known, it may suffice, by way of introduction to this part of our work, to remark, that on the 4th of July, 1776, the congress published a solemn declaration, setting forth the causes of their withdrawing their allegiance from the crown of Great Britain.

They stated, in the name, and by the authority, of the united colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts

Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, that they then were, and, of right, ought, to be Free and Independent States, and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and perform all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "*The United States of America.*"

For



For the more convenient management of the general interests of these states, it was determined, that delegates should be annually appointed in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved in each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, or to send others in their stead, for the remainder of the year. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state is to have one vote. Every state is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation are to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union is to be perpetual: nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a congress of the United States, and to be afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every state.

On the 30th of January, 1778, the French King concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19, 1782: and on the 30th of November 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic Majesty acknowledged the thirteen colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such February 5, 1783; Denmark 25th of February, 1783; Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1783.

SECTION I.

NEW ENGLAND.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Divisions. Climate. Soil. Produce. Articles of Exportation and Importation. Inland Trade. Religion. Government. Description of particular Colonies and Towns.

NEW England is situated between the 41st and 45th degrees of north latitude, and 67th and 73d degrees of west longitude. It is bounded by Canada on the north-west; by Nova Scotia, or Acadia, on the north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east and south; and by the province of New York on the west; being 550 miles long. It comprehends four colonies, viz. New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, and Connecticut.

The summers in New England are but of short duration. For the space of two months the sky is perfectly clear, which renders the country so healthy, that it is said to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winters are here long and severe, the wind often boisterous, and the air extremely sharp, but not intolerable. Naturalists ascribe the early approach, and the length and severity of the winters, to the large fresh-water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which being constantly frozen over from the beginning of November to June or July, occasion those piercing winds, which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast. Towards the sea the land is generally low, and frequently marshy; but in the country it rises into hills, and on the north-east becomes altogether rocky and mountainous.

The soil about the Massachusetts Bay is black, and the grass rank, but the uplands are fruitful. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here; and the country in general produces corn, pulse, esculent plants, Indian corn, and all kinds of timber. The oaks here are inferior to those of Old England; but the firs are of a prodigious bulk; and they draw from these and other trees, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, gums, and balm: the soil also producing hemp and flax, a ship may be built, and rigged out, with the produce thereof.

There is here great abundance and variety of fowl, as geese, ducks, turkies, hens, partridges, widgeons, swans, herons, heathcocks, pigeons, &c. nor is the feathered kind in greater plenty than the quadrupeds, more immediately necessary to human subsistence and convenience. All kinds of European cattle thrive and multiply exceedingly. The horses of the province are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but small. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, racoons, sables, bears, wolves, foxes, together with a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds: but the most extraordinary of these animals is the moose, or moose deer; the black species of which is about 12 feet high, with four horns, and broad palms, some distant near 12 feet from the tip of one horn to the other. His body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's; his tail is somewhat longer, and his flesh extremely grateful. The light-coloured moose, called *wampoon* by the Indians, is of a smaller stature, and much more common than the black. The rattle-snake is another natural curiosity of New England, though not peculiar to it.

The surrounding seas, and intersecting rivers, afford abundance of fish; consequently there are many fisheries, particularly for cod and mackarel.

Sugar-baking, distilling, paper-making, and the salt-works, are improveable; and the iron mines are considerable.

The people export biscuit, meal, salt provisions, sometimes cattle and horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe-staves, butter, cheese, grain, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-skins, tobacco, apples, cyder, and onions. They import, in return, sugar, cotton, ginger, and various other commodities. From Europe they import wine, silks, woollen cloths, toys, hardware, linen, ribbons, stuffs, laces, paper, household furniture, husbandry tools of all kinds, cordage, hats, stockings, shoes, and India goods. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use. Hats are also made here, and find a good sale in the other colonies. The business of ship-building was one of the greatest and most profitable employments of this country.

The inland trade, besides masts, yards, and provisions of all kinds, consists chiefly of furs, and the skins of beavers and martins. The furs and skins are brought in by the Indians, especially those on the rivers Penobscot and St. John.

In New England every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of their own mode of religion, and is equally under the protection of law.

With respect to the government of New England previous to the revolt of the colonies, the appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown. The power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor as captain-general. All judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council. The governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited. He was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number. Authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were transmitted to the court of England for the royal approbation: but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time. No laws, ordinances, elections of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing.

But this mode of government has been totally changed with the revolution that since took place, of which we have already given an account. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Bolton, the declaration of the American congress, absolving the united colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent,

was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state house in that town.

A constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and took place, in October, 1780. This government was formed absolutely upon republican principles, both in a civil and religious sense.

The Massachusetts colony received its name from the Indians who inhabited these parts when the English first came hither. It is subdivided into the provinces of Plymouth, Massachusetts Proper, and Maine.

Plymouth province is divided into the counties of Bristol, Plymouth, and Barnstable. Bristol, the chief town of the county of that name, is large and populous, has a commodious harbour, and is well situated for trade.

In the province of Massachusetts Proper are the counties of Suffolk, Middlesex, and Essex. Their chief towns are Boston, Cambridge, and Salem.

Boston is not only the chief town of Massachusetts Proper, but of all New England. It stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, about eight miles from its mouth, and is well fortified. The approach to the harbour by shipping is narrow, but within it there is room enough for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay stands Fort William, the most regular fortress belonging to the United States. No ship can approach the town without passing directly under the guns of the fort. About two leagues from the city is a light-house, erected on a rock. At the bottom of the bay, which is very spacious, is a pier, near 2000 feet in length, with a row of merchants warehouses on the north side. The city lies in the shape of a half-moon round the harbour, being in length about two miles, and in some places near three quarters of a mile broad. The principal street runs from the pier up to the town-house, which is a handsome building, with walks for the merchants. This edifice contains the courts of justice, the council-chamber, and the house of representatives. There are some places of public worship, and other structures, both spacious and elegant.

Cambridge Town, commonly called Newton, is situated on the northern branch of Charles's river, about three miles from Boston, in which are several good streets: but it is most considerable for its university, consisting of two colleges, called by the names of Harvard College and Stoughton-Hall. The university is governed by a president, five fellows, and the treasurer, who have each of them a competent revenue settled on them.

At Lexington, in the county of Middlesex, the first blood was shed in the unhappy contest between Great Britain and the colonies. Charles Town, opposite to Boston, was set on fire in the attack of Bunker's Hill.

Salem is situated on a plain between two rivers, on each of which it has a harbour about 18 miles north of Boston. Its principal business is ship-building, particularly the construction of fishing-smacks.

The province of Maine contains the two counties of York and Cornwall, of which the chief towns are Scarborough and Falmouth.

The chief towns of the province of New Hampshire are Hampton, Portsmouth, and Exeter, all of which lie near the mouth of the river Piscataqua.

The colony of Connecticut is about 100 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. Connecticut River, which is one of the largest in New England, runs through the heart of the province, and is navigable above 40 miles for large vessels, and much farther for small ones. This colony abounds in metals and naval stores, especially timber, and has many good ports. The colony is divided into four counties, and its chief towns are Newhaven, Hertford, and New London.

Newhaven stands upon the coast, and has a college for academical learning, called Yale-Hall, prettily well endowed, and furnished with a good library.

Hertford is a handsome, populous town, situated on the Banks of Connecticut River.

New London is a town of good trade, situated on the west side, and near the mouth of the river, called Thames.

Connecticut is deemed, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of America, as well in the abundance of people, as cultivation of soil. The men, in general, are robust, stout, and tall. The greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept strait by means of a board; a practice learned of the Indian women; so that deformity is here a rarity. The women are handsome and genteel in their persons, and modest and reserved in their behaviour. They do not follow idle amusements, but employ their time in such pursuits as tend to the improvement of the mind. The people here are very hospitable to strangers.

In no part of the world are the people in general so independent, or possess more of the conveniencies of life, than in New England. They are used, from their infancy, to the exercise of arms: and before the contest with the mother country, they had a militia which was by no means contemptible: but their military strength is now much more considerable.

The colony of Rhode Island comprehends a district on the continent, called Providence Plantation. The island, which is about 15 or 16 miles long, and about four or five broad, is called the Paradise of New England, from the fruitfulness of the soil, and the temperateness of the climate.

Providence Plantation, which lies opposite to Rhode Island, is about 20 miles square, and has two large towns, one of which is called Providence, and the other Warwick.

The lovers of literature cannot but feel a satisfaction when they are reminded that, notwithstanding the calamities of a war, carried on with the utmost animosity by the parties engaged on each side, the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts Bay, passed an act in May 1780, for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences, intitled "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences."

SECTION II.

N E W Y O R K.

THE colony of New York is situated between 40 and 46 degrees of north latitude. Its length is about 300 miles, and its breadth about 150. This province, including the Island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the ten following counties, New York, Albany, Ulster, Dutchess, Orange, West Chester, King's, Queen's, Suffolk, and Richmond. The chief towns are New York, Albany, and Schenectady.

The principal rivers are Hudsons, the Mohawk, and the Delaware. The former abounds with excellent harbours, and great variety of fish. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, or Great Waterfalls. This surprising cataract is a quarter of a mile broad, and 70 feet deep. The water precipitating itself from several rocks which project from the fell, falls down on every side in torrents, and being broken near the bottom by many separate crags, rises in a white froth. From the whole arises a misty cloud, that descends like small rain, and exhibits, when the sun shines, a beautiful rainbow. The chief lakes are George, Champlain, and Ontario.

As New York lies to the southward of New England, it enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air of this province is very salutary. The face of the country, resembling that of the neighbouring colonies, is low, flat, and marshy, towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual

gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country.

The soil is very fertile in most parts of the province, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron, and of excellent quality, is found here.

The animals, in general, of this province, are the same with those of New England.

The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is about twelve miles long, and three broad, and extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's River, being a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is above a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery. In the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of the governor. Some of the houses are elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the King's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English.

No part of America is better supplied with markets, abounding with great plenty and variety of provisions. It is at once the metropolis and grand mart of the province, and, by its commodious situation, commands also the trade of the western part of Connecticut, and that of East Jersey. No season prevents ships from putting to sea; and during the severest part of the winter, an equal activity runs through all ranks, orders, and employments.

The town of New Albany is situated on the western banks of Hudson's River, about 150 miles from New York. The houses are built with brick in the Dutch taste. The public buildings are two churches, the fort, and town-hall.

Saratoga, a small fort to the northward of Albany, was the place where a combined army of British and Hessians, surrendered prisoners of war to the Americans, in October 1777.

About 16 miles north-west of Albany lies Schenectady, situate on the banks of the Mohawk River. It is compact and regularly built. It has a large Dutch church; and the windings of the river through the place and the adjacent fields, which are overflowed in the spring, form a most beautiful prospect about harvest time. The lands are remarkably fertile.

Kingston has a number of inhabitants, and is a well-built town.

With respect to religion, it is ordained by the late constitution of New York, that the free exercise of profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall be allowed by that state to all mankind. About the year 1755 a college was erected by the assembly; but the members being at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally have been expected for a public seminary in so populous a city.

The commerce of New York does not essentially differ from that of New England. The chief commodities of trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. They have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. Their European trade is the same with that of New England, and they import the same species of commodities.

The Dutch and Swedes were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. They called it the New Netherlands, and continued in possession of it till the reign of Charles II. when it was taken by the English in 1664. The Dutch, to balance this conquest, made themselves masters of Surinam, then belonging to the English. At the treaty of Breda in 1667 the New Netherlands were ceded to

the English, and Surinam to the Dutch. The New Netherlands had not been long in our possession before they were divided into provinces, and New York took its name from the king's brother James duke of York, to whom his majesty granted it, with full powers of government by letters patent. On the accession of king James to the throne this province became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council, and the people, once in seven years, elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England, but in order to their being valid, the royal assent was first to be obtained.

In 1777 the supreme legislative power was vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one to be called "The Assembly of the State of New York," to consist of seventy members annually chosen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," to consist of twenty-four for four years, who together were to form the legislature, and to meet once at least in every year for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power was to be vested in a governor, who was to continue in office three years, assisted by four counsellors chosen by and from the senate. Every male inhabitant of full age who should possess a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the election, was entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who voted for the governor and members of the senate were to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the judges, &c. were to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

Before we close our account of this province, it will be necessary to observe, that the north-west parts of it are inhabited by five Indian nations called Iroquois. These people, by their unanimity, firmness, military skill and policy, raised themselves to the greatest and most formidable power in America.

As their manner of carrying on war is implacable and barbarous, they reign the lords of a prodigious desert inhabited only by a few scattered insignificant tribes, whom they have permitted to live out of a contempt of their power, and who are in the lowest state of subjection.

Every nation of the Iroquois is a distinct republic, governed by their sachems, or civil magistrates, in times of peace, and by their warriors or captains in their wars: but their chiefs never resolve on, or execute, any thing of importance without consulting the heads of their tribes.

They are very strict in observing the oaths they swear to each other, especially those which their warriors make of standing by one another to the last. These they keep to such a degree as to hazard their lives to rescue the bare carcases of their fallen brethren.

They commonly make a kind of feast over the grave, and put into it wheat, tobacco, and every thing they think the deceased may want in the other world.

The women are very prolific, yet they do most of the drudgery, such as grinding the wheat, fetching of wood, water, and the like. The children are often so stubborn, that if they are found fault with, the girls will dispatch themselves with some poisonous weed, and the boys with a gun. The business of the men is hunting, going to war, building their huts, felling timber, tilling the ground, and the like.

SECTION III.

N E W J E R S E Y.

THIS province is situated between 39 and 43 deg. of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by New York, on the south by Delaware Bay, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Pennsylvania.

nia. It is about 160 miles in length, and near 60 in breadth.

New Jersey comprises two divisions, east and west. The east division contains the counties of Middlesex, Monmouth, Essex, Somerset and Bergen. The west those of Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, Cumberland, Cape May, Huntingdon, Morris and Sussex.

The principal rivers are the Delaware, Raritan and Passaic. On the latter is a stupendous cataract. The height of the rock from which the water falls is about 70 feet perpendicular, and the breadth of the river at the fall 80 yards.

The air of New Jersey is salubrious, and the climate nearly the same with that of New York; but the summers are something longer, and the cold in winter less severe. The soil is various: one fourth of the province is barren, sandy land; the other is good, and some of it very fertile.

The animal and vegetable productions here are, in general, the same with those in New England. The sandy parts of the country produce pines and cedars, and the arable lands good crops of excellent wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. together with a great variety of delicious fruits.

In the country of Bergen there is a very valuable copper mine, which is worked to great advantage; excellent iron ore is also found in several parts of the province.

The foreign trade of this province is not extensive, owing principally to its vicinity to the large trading towns of New York and Philadelphia. The principal exports are, wheat, flour, copper ore, pig and bar iron, and black cattle, which they drive in great numbers to Philadelphia, on the rich pastures of which they are fed for some time before they are sent to market and killed.

The chief towns in New Jersey are, Perth-Amboy and Burlington. They were once seats of government, but the governors generally resided at the latter. Perth-Amboy is commodiously situated at the mouth of the river Raritan. The town is not very large, but the houses are neat, and some of them elegant. It has a good port, and the harbour is safe and capacious to contain many large ships.

Burlington is pleasantly situated in a small island formed by the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. It stands commodiously for trade, is well built, has a large town-house, and two bridges (called London and York bridges) over the branch of the Delaware, which separates it from the main land.

New Jersey was part of the New Netherlands, which, as before observed, was given by Charles II. to his brother James duke of York. He sold it to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and as the latter was before possessed of estates in the island of Jersey the same name was given to this province. It was sold by these proprietors to others, who, in the year 1702, surrendered their charter to Queen Anne, after which it became a royal government. From that time to the revolt of the colonies its government was much the same as that of the colonies in general. But by the new charter of rights established in 1776 it is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders, and worth at least 1000l. real personal estate, and the members of the general assembly to be worth 500l.

All inhabitants worth 50l. are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The governor and lieutenant-governor to be chosen out of, and by, the assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, the officers of the executive power for five years, and the provincial treasurer for only one year.

All religious sects are tolerated here, and enjoy their respective tenets and modes of worship without molestation.

In the year 1746 governor Beldrier founded a college at Prince-Town, and procured it the privilege of conferring degrees in the same manner as at Oxford or Cambridge. Before the late unhappy dissensions students came here from all parts of the continent.

SECTION IV.

PENNSYLVANIA.

THIS province is situated between 39 and 44 deg. of north latitude, and 72 and 78 deg. of west longitude. It is about 300 miles in length and 240 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the country of the Iroquois, on the south by Maryland, on the east by the river Delaware, and on the west by the river Ohio.

Pennsylvania is divided into seven counties. The upper are those of Buckingham, Philadelphia, Chester and Lancaster: the three lower counties are, Newcastle, Kent and Sussex. These, though originally appertaining to Pennsylvania, have a separate government of their own, and as such were distinguished at the establishment of the United States of America, being specified in the list of those states under the appellation of "The State of Delaware," as they are situated on the river of that name.

The chief rivers are the Delaware, which is navigable more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. The Susquehanna and Schuylkill, which are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous creeks and harbours in Delaware Bay, are admirably suited to the trade of the province.

The air of this country is sweet, serene, and clear. Autumn sets in about the 20th of October; winter the beginning of December, and continues till March, during which the weather is extremely cold, the frosts being very intense. Spring begins in March, and continues till June. The summer season includes the months of July, August, and September, when the heat would be intolerable, were it not mitigated by frequent cool breezes.

The soil is fertile, producing a variety of trees, fruits, and vegetables in general. The animal productions are much the same with those of New England.

It may be remarked in general, that in all the plantations from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of vines of divers species, and all different from those we have in Europe. But whether from some defect in their nature, or want of skill in the planters, they have not been known to produce any wine that deserves to be mentioned; though the Indians from them make a kind of wine with which they regale themselves. It may further be observed, that the timber of the southern colonies is not so good for shipping as that of the northern, because it is less compact, and splits more easily; properties which, though less serviceable in ship-building, render it more useful for staves and wainscoting.

The province of Pennsylvania contains many considerable cities and towns, as German Town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, &c. But the city of Philadelphia stands unrivalled in America, and therefore deserves principal attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony, and lies between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, which terminates it on the north, and the Skuokill on the south. It forms an oblong of near two miles in length. The streets are wide and spacious, and exactly strait and parallel to each other. The houses are, in general, well built, and make a handsome appearance, several of the public buildings being elegant. Every owner of 1000 acres has his house in one of the two fronts facing the river, or in the high street, running from the middle of the one front to the middle of the other. In the center of the city is a square of ten acres, encompassed by the town house and other public buildings. There are noble barracks, and a spacious quay, with wet

wet and dry docks for building and repairing ships; besides magazines, warehouses, and all other conveniences for exporting and importing merchandize. The governor's seat is a most magnificent building. In a word, nothing can well appear more beautiful than this city and the adjacent country, which, for some miles, may be compared to a fine and flourishing garden.

The other towns in Pennsylvania are German Town, Oxford, Radnor, Chester, Chichester, and Newcastle. German Town is a thriving, populous place, inhabited mostly by Germans. At Chester and Chichester are ports sufficient to receive and secure the largest fleets from storms. Newcastle carries on a considerable trade, and has an iron mine in its neighbourhood.

This country, forming a part of what was called the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. After Admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Colonel Venables, had some years before taken the Island of Jamaica, being in favour with Charles the Second, obtained a promise of this country from that monarch.

Upon his death his son, the celebrated quaker, claimed the royal promise, and, after a tedious court solicitation, obtained the grant of this province in 1679, and called it Pennsylvania, or Penn's country. The situation of the times induced great numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the quakers were then particularly exposed. But it was to his own wisdom and ability that they were indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. That great man laid down civil and religious liberty as the chief foundation of all his institutions. His generosity extended to the Indian nations; for instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of them the lands he had obtained by grant; judging that the original property, and eldest right, were vested in them. By this act of justice in the beginning, he rendered all his future dealings with those people successful. Prepossessed with a favourable opinion of him as to his designs, they were so far from annoying the settlers, that they were ready to give them assistance whenever it was wanted. In fine, Mr. Penn, by pursuing an equitable plan, soon established this colony, which may be said to have attained to a degree of superiority over the rest.

There were in the city of Philadelphia a great number of wealthy merchants, which is not surprising, when we consider the great trade which it carried on with divers nations in different quarters of the globe. The imports and exports, therefore, must have been very considerable.

The general congress assembled at the city of Philadelphia in 1774, and continued their meetings till it was taken by the British arms in 1777. But the ensuing summer the British troops retreated to New York, and the congress met at Philadelphia as before.

By the constitution established by general convention at Philadelphia, in September, 1776, the supreme legislative power of Pennsylvania is vested in an assembly of representatives, chosen annually by ballot; and the executive power in a president and council of twelve, chosen by the freemen. Delegates to congress are chosen by ballot, out of, and by the, assembly.

The legislature of the state of Delaware is, by the convention in the same year and month as the former, composed of two distinct bodies; the house of assembly, chosen annually by the freeholders of the counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex; and the council of nine members, chosen in like manner. The executive power is a president, chosen out of the general assembly by joint ballot, and a privy council of two of the legislative council, and two of the house of assembly. Delegates to congress are annually to be elected by, and out of, the general assembly, by ballot; and the officers of state, civil and military, chosen by the president and general assembly.

No. 46.

Religious liberty is founded in Pennsylvania on the most ample basis, so that here are Christians of all denominations, and they live together in the utmost harmony. In the small town of Ephrata, in the county of Suffex, there is an extraordinary religious sect called Dunkards, a very harmless and inoffensive set of people.

A German hermit, who settled on the spot where Ephrata is now built, was the founder of this sect. The fame of his solitude inspired some of his countrymen with curiosity; and the simplicity of his life, with the piety of his conversation, induced them to join and imitate him. A people who leave their native country to enjoy liberty of conscience can bear all subsequent mortifications. The Germans of both sexes, who joined the hermit, soon accustomed themselves to his way of thinking, and consequently to his manner of living. Industry became part of their duty, and divided their time with devotion. Their gains are thrown into one common stock, which supplies all their exigencies, private as well as public. Their females are cloistered up by themselves in a separate part of the town, the situation of which is delightful, and screens them from the north wind. It is triangular, and fenced round with thick rows of apple, beech, and cherry trees, besides having an orchard in the middle. The houses, which are of wood, are mostly three stories high; and every person has a separate apartment, that he may not be disturbed in his devotions. The women never see the men but at public worship, or when it is necessary to consult upon matters of public economy. Their garb is the most simple that can well be imagined, being a long white woollen gown in winter, and linen in the summer, with a cape, which serves them for a hat, like that of a capuchin behind, and fastened round the waist with a belt. Under the gown they wear a waistcoat of the same materials, a coarse shirt, trowsers, and shoes. The dress of the women is the same, only, instead of trowsers, they wear petticoats; and when they leave their nunnery (for such it is) they muffle up their faces in their capuchins. The diet of the Dunkards consists chiefly of vegetables: but it is no principle with them to abstain from animal food, only they think that such abstinence is most agreeable to a Christian life. This temperance emaciates their bodies, and, as the men suffer their beards to grow to their full length, gives them a hollow ghastly appearance. Their beds are no better than benches; a little wooden block serves them for a pillow; and they celebrate public worship twice every day, and as often every night. But though such modes of life appear absurd and impracticable, the Dunkards are far from being extravagant. Their chapel is very decent: and they have, upon a fine stream, a grist-mill, a paper-mill, an oil-mill, and a mill for pearl barley, all of them most ingeniously constructed by themselves. They have even a printing-office. They are, especially the nuns, extremely ingenious in working, and in embellishments of all sorts. Though the two sexes live separate from each other in their town, the Dunkards are far from being averse to matrimony. In this case the parties must, indeed, leave the town; but they are supplied out of the public fund with whatever is necessary for their settling elsewhere. This sect, among themselves, know nothing but harmony and mutual affection; every one cheerfully performs the task of industry assigned him; and their hospitality to strangers is unbounded; but their principles forbid them to receive the smallest recompence.

Among the several different sects in Philadelphia, that of the Moravians is none of the least considerable. The wildness and extravagance of this sect are well known all over Europe; but though they have a kind of chapel here, their principal settlement is at a place called Bethlehem, near sixty miles from the city of Philadelphia.

SECTION V.

MARYLAND.

THIS province is situated between 38 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and between 74 and 80 degrees west longitude. It is about 140 miles in length, and 135 in breadth; and is bounded by Pennsylvania on the north, by Virginia on the south, by the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and by the Apalachian mountains on the west.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the Bay of Chesapeak, viz. the eastern and western divisions. The eastern division contains the counties of Worcester, Somerset, Dorset, Talbot, Cecil, Queen Anne's, and Kent. The western contains St. Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Arundel, and Baltimore.

The air is excessive hot in the summer, and pinching cold in the winter; but the latter is not of above three months duration. The parts next the sea are very low, but the interior districts are hilly. It is watered by innumerable springs, forming a great many fine rivers, of which the chief are Patowmack, Pocomoae, Patuxent, Severn, Cheptouk, Sassafras, Wicomico, and St. George. These and other rivers, capable of receiving large ships, with the numerous bays and creeks that indent the land on every side, give the seamen an opportunity of bringing their vessels up to the planters doors. The chief bays are those of Chesapeak and Delaware; and the most noted cape that of Henlopen, at the entrance of Delaware Bay. The soil is fruitful, and, as the rivers and brooks diffuse fertility, produces trees, plants, and grain in abundance.

The chief commodity of Maryland is tobacco, of which vast cargoes, consisting of many thousand hogheads, are annually exported. This commodity forms the medium of currency of Maryland, being received in debts and taxes; and the inspector's notes for tobacco, delivered to him, are transferable. An industrious man can manage 6000 plants of tobacco, and four acres of Indian corn. The tobacco of this province, called Oronoko, is different from that of Virginia; and though not much liked or used in England, yet, in the eastern and northern parts of Europe, it is preferred before the sweet-scented tobacco of James and York Rivers, in Virginia. Another considerable commodity of Maryland is pork, the woods containing vast droves of wild swine, which are generally of a small size. Good land in Maryland yields about 15 bushels of wheat an acre, or 30 bushels of Indian corn; but the grain is subject to the weevil. Great quantities both of hemp and flax are raised in this province; and the mountains yield abundance of iron ore, which is run into pigs, and refined into iron. Maryland oak is not greatly esteemed for building large ships, but is very proper for staves and small craft.

Their imports consist chiefly of wine from Madeira, Fyal, and France; rum from Barbadoes, slaves from Africa, and malt, beer, linens, woollens, utensils of every kind, and, in short, most of the elegancies, as well as conveniencies of life, from England.

The capital of this province is Annapolis; but tho' the governor generally resides there, it is small and inconsiderable. Baltimore contains some scattered buildings, and scarcely merits the name of a town.

Maryland was discovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was first planted, and, for some time, was esteemed a part of Virginia, till King Charles I. in 1632, granted all that part of Virginia, which lay north of Patowmack River, to the Lord Baltimore, of the kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs. The Baltimore family were deprived of the government of this province during the civil wars in England, but recovered it again at the restoration; and they still remain proprietors. The estate enjoyed by them here is the most considerable of any subject of Great Britain abroad; for, besides their plantations, they have certain re-

venues granted to them by several assemblies, as a duty on each hoghead of tobacco, and other incomes, which, with the sale of lands, uncultivated and unpurchased, must amount, at present, to a very considerable sum yearly.

The first adventurers having been Roman Catholics, followed by many families of that persuasion, who came over from England to avoid the penal laws, many of the planters profess that religion. However, the church of England was afterwards established here; and churches have not only been built, but parishes allotted to them, with annual stipends to the ministers.

The Americans have large plantations, which prevent the increase of towns. Indeed, each plantation is a little town of itself, and can subsist itself with provisions and necessaries; every considerable planter's warehouse being like a shop, where he supplies inferior planters, servants, and labourers, and has commodities to barter for tobacco, &c. here being little money, and little occasion for it, tobacco answering all the uses of gold and silver in trade. There is, indeed, both Spanish and English money, but then it serves but for pocket expences, &c. Here are but few shopkeepers that can be properly so called, or who may be said to live by their trades.

Most of the few Indians live on the east shore, where they have two or three little towns. They are employed in hunting for deer by the Americans. The cause of their diminishing proceeded from their own perpetual discords and wars amongst themselves. 'Tis observable, that though they are very timorous, and cowardly in fight, yet, when taken prisoners, and condemned, they die like heroes, braving the most exquisite tortures, and singing all the time they are on the rack.

The government of Maryland, as settled in 1776, is now vested in a governor and five council, a senate of fifteen, and a house of delegates. All freemen above 21 years of age, having a freehold of 50 acres, or property to the value of 30l. have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates. All persons appointed to any office of profit or trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

In 1782 a college was founded at Chester town in this province, under the name of Washington College, in honour of General Washington.

SECTION VI.

VIRGINIA.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Divisions. Rivers. Climate. Soil. Productions. Chief Towns. Dispositions, Manners, Customs, &c. of the Virginians, as a Specimen of the People of the Provinces in General. Description of the Persons, Manners, Customs, &c. of the Indians, original Inhabitants of America.

THE province of Virginia is situated between 36 and 40 degrees of north lat. and 74 and 80 degrees west longitude, being about 750 miles in length, and 240 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the river Potomac, on the south by Carolina, on the east by the Bay of Chesapeak, and on the west by the Apalachian mountains. It is properly divided into four parts, viz. the northern, the middle, the southern, and the eastern divisions. Each of these contains a number of counties, towns, &c. of which we shall mention such as are most worthy of notice.

The entrance to Virginia for shipping is by Chesapeak Bay, which runs up 200 miles into the land. Through this bay, also, all vessels must pass that are bound to Maryland.

The four principal rivers in this country are James River, York River, Raphannock, and Potomac. These are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, of all countries, the most convenient for navigation.

navigation. It has been observed, and without exaggeration, that every planter has a river at his door.

The climate is deemed healthy for English constitutions, having a clear sky, and a kindly soil. The frosts in winter are very severe, but of short continuance. The heats of summer are most violent in June, July, and August, but are much mitigated by the rains; and the fresh breezes that are common to Virginia, contribute to render the heat tolerable to new comers, and hardly sensible to the inhabitants. Storms of thunder and lightning are very frequent here, but seldom attended with any mischief.

The soil, in general, is a rich deep mould, and under it a loam, of which they make fine bricks; but the quality varies as it is moist or dry. It is distinguished into three sorts, viz. high, low, and marshy, all which, having sand mixed with them, makes their land warmer than that of Great Britain. Their high lands are mostly sandy, but bear large crops of tobacco. The low lands are rich, but the marsh lands poor. Upon the whole, however, Virginia abounds with every thing necessary for the pleasure or profit of the inhabitants.

The animals peculiar to this country are beavers, otters, foxes, wild cats, racoons, martins, minks, in the fresh waters, where the Indians are dexterous in catching them for the fur trade. The woods are stocked with deer; and they have also elks, buffalos, bears, wolves, and English cattle of all sorts. Hares and rabbits are plentiful, and as good as those in England; besides which they have the arronghena, somewhat like the badger, the flying squirrel, the opossum, and the muscivora, a sort of water rat, with a musky scent.

Of birds they have great variety, both for feather and song. The Virginian nightingale, which takes its distinguishing epithet from this province, is adorned with a plumage of bright crimson and blue, and sings most delightfully. The natural note of the mocking bird is very melodious; besides which it attains to that of the linnet, lark, nightingale, &c. There is also the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, being arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is its chief nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive to England. They have also hawks and eagles, with great variety of wild fowl of the usual species.

A country so intersected with large rivers, may be supposed to abound with fish. On the sea coasts are sturgeon and cod; and in the rivers almost every kind of fish, that are found in other parts of the world.

The forests yield oaks, elms, poplar, pines, cedars, and firs; and the whole country is interspersed with variety of shrubs, plants, and flowers. They have fruits not only peculiar to the soil, but those introduced from England, as well as garden herbs in great abundance.

Tobacco is the staple commodity of the country, and brought to such perfection as to command a large traffic, not only to England, but to all parts of the world. This traffic has employed 200 sail of ships. Besides the advantages accruing to the national stock from the exportation of tobacco, are to be considered the prodigious numbers of hands it employs in the manufacture. Great quantities of divers commodities were exported from Great Britain to this colony, whose merchants and planters supplied the West India islands with tobacco, cattle, and provisions, bringing back, in exchange, molasses, sugar, and rum.

Virginia is adorned by several magnificent public buildings; but the only towns worthy of notice, are Williamsburg and James Town. Williamsburg, now the capital of the province, has a number of houses, and some spacious edifices. It is about forty miles from the mouth of James River, and seven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, but now chiefly contains houses for the entertainment of seafaring people.

At Williamsburg is a college founded by King William III. called William and Mary College. The royal donor gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year; and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. The Honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

Virginia was the first colony planted by the English in America: for though the continent of North America was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497, no attempts were made for settling a colony on it till the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when Sir Walter Raleigh, the most enterprising genius of that age, obtained letters patent for the purpose. A squadron of ships was accordingly fitted out, and a number of adventurers embarked. Upon their arrival Sir Walter erected the English standard, took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and, in honour of his royal mistress, called it Virginia. Unfortunately, however, this great man failed in his expedition, and his grand designs were consequently rendered abortive.

The bad success attending the first attempts seemed to give little hopes of their being ever completed; for near one half of the first colony was destroyed by the Indians; and the rest, worn out by fatigue and famine, returned to their native country. The second colony was cut off by the Indians. The third shared the same fate. The fourth had dwindled to a poor remainder, and were returning in a famishing condition to England, when, just in the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, they were met by Lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned. By his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of Virginia from the most laudable motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return to England, but left behind him a deputy and council, composed of liberal and intelligent men. Nor did the noble governor, on his return to England, forget the colony. For eight years together he was indefatigable in pursuing every plan that could tend to the peopling, support, and government of this settlement. He died in pursuit of the same object in his passage to Virginia, having fitted out some vessels laden with stores for the use of the colony. The settlers, however, were so firmly established, that they effectually frustrated the attempts of the Indians to oppose them, and erected James Town, the first place built by the English in this part of the world. The colony now continued to flourish, and the true source of its wealth began to be discovered and improved.

This settlement was, at first, greatly distressed for wives, few females caring to go over; and the planters seemed to think it a wicked thing to match with Pagans. But as soon as the colony was settled, and the planters in good circumstances, a great many girls went over thither from England, in expectation of making their fortunes, carrying certificates with them of their chaste behaviour on this side the water; for, without such certificates, the cautious planters, though ever so much distressed for wives, would not admit them to their beds. If they were but moderately qualified in other respects in those days, they might depend upon being well married. The planters were so far from expecting money with a woman, that it was a common thing to buy a deserving wife, who came over thither a servant, at the price of 100l. if she carried good testimonials with her. But afterwards, when the fruitfulness of Virginia was better known, and the dangers incident to an infant settlement were over, people in good circumstances went over thither with their families, either to improve their estates, or avoid persecution at home; and particularly, at the time of the grand rebellion, several good cavalier families retired thither, as those on the

the other side did, upon the restoration of King Charles the Second: but Virginia had few of the latter, having distinguished herself by her loyalty, in adhering to the royal family, after all other people had submitted to the usurpation. The round-heads, for the most part, therefore, went to New England.

During the troubles in the reign of Charles I. many of the loyalists fled to Virginia, and, under the command of Sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, till the parliament found means to reduce them.

There is nothing very interesting in the history of this province after the restoration. A kind of rebellion, indeed, broke out on account of some restrictions having been laid by government on trade. But the death of the leader of the insurgents restored the peace of the colony, and prevented the dreadful consequences of a civil war.

While Virginia continued under the British government, the governor was vested with plenary powers in all acts of administration, and his usual salary was from 2 to 3000*l.* a year, including perquisites. The council was the upper house in the assembly, who claimed a negative voice in all laws. The assemblymen were two for each county, chosen by the freeholders; but their acts were to be approved by the crown. As in the other provinces, there is universal toleration here in matters of religion.

The government of this province, as settled in convention in July 1776, is vested in a governor, senate of 24, and a house of delegates, all of whom are chosen annually. But the privy-council, or council of state, consisting of eight members, is also to be chosen by the joint ballot of the Senate and House of Delegates, to assist in the administration of government.

As the province of Virginia is deemed the most considerable of the United States of America, and there is a similarity of disposition, manners, customs, &c. between the people of the provinces in general, we shall treat of those particulars under this head, as a specimen of the whole.

The Virginians are represented as generous, hospitable, and possessing very liberal sentiments. There appears to be but three degrees of rank among all the inhabitants, exclusive of the negroes.

The first rank consists of gentlemen of the best families and fortunes in the colony. These, in general, have had a liberal education, possess much discernment, and such a competent knowledge of the world, as produce an ease and freedom of manners and conversation that cannot be affected by circumstances or situation.

They are deemed, upon the whole, most agreeable companions, friends and neighbours. The greater part live in elegance and splendour, and maintain the appearance of grandeur both at home and abroad.

Those of the second degree are very numerous, and consist of such a variety, singularity and mixture of characters, that the leading feature can scarcely be ascertained. They are, however, generous, friendly and hospitable; but these good qualities are mixed with an appearance of bluntness, which seems to result from their general intercourse with slaves, over whom they are accustomed to exercise an harsh and absolute command.

Some of the second rank possess fortunes superior to many of the first, but their families are not so ancient or respectable, a circumstance to which much dignity is here annexed.

They are addicted to every kind of sport, gaming and dissipation, particularly horse-racing and cock-fighting. Taken altogether they form a strange combination of principles and practices directly opposite; some being as laudable and worthy of imitation, as others are contemptible and obnoxious.

Notwithstanding this apparent inconsistency of character, principle and conduct, numbers of them are truly valuable members of society, and few or none deficient in natural genius, which, though in a great

measure unimproved, frequently appears in very forcible instances.

The third, or lower class of the people, (who ever compose the bulk of mankind) are mostly hospitable and generous, though noisy and rude. They are much addicted to inebriety, and averse to labour.

The general hospitality that prevails throughout all the southern provinces will evidently appear from the following peculiar customs that are universal.

A traveller, even of the lowest rank, observing an orchard full of fine fruit, either apples or peaches, in or near his way, enters without ceremony, and fills his pockets, (and even a bag if he has one) without asking permission, or being liable to censure.

This freedom will not appear so strange when it is considered that no kind of fruit here is saleable, and that it is in such plenty that the inhabitants daily feed their hogs with the finest sort during the season.

Travellers, in the cyder season, are generally offered on the road as much as they can drink, and frequently requested to stay all night and be hospitably entertained.

When a person of apparent rank calls at an ordinary (the name of their inns) for refreshment and lodging for a night, as soon as any gentleman of fortune in the neighbourhood hears of it he either comes for him himself, or sends him a polite and pressing invitation to his house, where he is entertained much more agreeably than he could be at the inn. He is treated in the most hospitable manner, and his servants and horses fare plentifully during the time of his stay. This is done with a good grace, nor is the least hint dropped of a curious desire to know the business or even name of the stranger.

Virginia, at the commencement of the late unhappy commotions, was said to contain 650,000 inhabitants, of which nearly two thirds were blacks. But that account, by most calculators, has been deemed exaggerated, and the medium may be said to be fixed at 500,000 in the whole.

As there is a difference in rank among the inhabitants, not only of Virginia, but the colonies in general, so also is there in their manner of living, of which the following may serve as a specimen.

The man of fortune usually rises about nine o'clock, and breakfasts between nine and ten. His breakfast generally consists of tea or coffee, bread and butter, and very thin slices of venison ham, or hung beef. He then reposes (if in the hot weather) on a pallet, on the floor in the coolest room in the house, in his shirt and trowsers only, with a negro at his head and another at his feet, to fan him and keep off the flies. Between twelve and one he takes a draught of bombo or toddy, a liquor composed of water, sugar, rum and nutmeg, which is made weak and kept cool. He dines between two and three, and at every table, whatever else there may be, a ham and greens form generally a standing dish. At dinner he drinks cyder, toddy, punch, port, claret, or Madeira, which is, in general, excellent here. After dinner he returns to his pallet with his two blacks to fan him, and continues to drink toddy or sangaree all the afternoon: he does not always drink tea. Between nine and ten in the evening he eats a light supper of milk and fruit, or wine, sugar, fruit, &c. and almost immediately retires to bed for the night, in which, if he be not furnished with mulqueto curtains, he is generally so molested with the heat, and harassed and tormented with insects, that he receives very little refreshment from sleep. This is the general mode of living of a man of fortune in his family when he has no company. It is not mentioned as without exception; but as a mode that more follow than do not.

The mode of living of many of the middling, and all the lower classes of whites, is very different. A man in this line rises about six o'clock. He then drinks a julap made of rum, water and sugar, but very strong. After this he walks or rides round his plantation, takes a survey of his stock, and all his crop, and breakfasts about

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of GEOGRAPHY* Published by Royal Authority.



A. Man & Woman of the Chipewags to the eastward of the Mississippi in North America.



A. Man & Woman of the Saunderwags to the westward of the Mississippi in North America.

about ten on cold turkey, cold meat, toast and cyder, ham, bread and butter, tea, coffee or chocolate, which last, however, is seldom tasted but by the women. The rest of the day he spends much in the same manner before described as a man of the first rank, only cyder supplies the place of wine at dinner, and he eats no supper: they seldom think of it. The women very seldom drink tea in the afternoon; the men never.

The lot of the poor negro slaves is hard indeed. It is astonishing to conceive what amazing fatigue these poor wretches undergo, and can support. The negro is called up in the morning at break of day, and seldom allowed time enough to swallow three mouthfulls of homminy, or hoe cake, but is driven out immediately to the field to hard labour, at which he continues without intermission till noon. It is observed as a singular circumstance, that the negroes always carry out a piece of fire with them, and kindle one just by their work, let the weather be ever so hot and sultry. About noon is the time he eats his dinner, which consists of homminy and salt, and if his master be a man of humanity he has a little fat, skimmed milk, rusty bacon, or a salt herring to relish his homminy, which kind masters allow their slaves twice a week. They then return to hard labour, which continues in the field until dusk in the evening, when they repair to the tobacco houses, where each has his task in stripping allotted him; that employs him for some hours. If it be found next morning that he has neglected, slighted, or not performed his task, he is tied up and receives a number of lashes on his bare back most severely inflicted at the discretion of the overseers, who are permitted to exercise an unlimited dominion over these wretches. It is late at night before he returns to his other scanty meal, and even the time taken up at it encroaches upon his hours of sleep, which altogether do not exceed eight in number for eating and sleeping.

But what is amazing, considering the fatigue he has undergone, which must naturally dispose him to rest, he frequently sets out from home and walks six or seven miles in the night, be the weather ever so sultry, to a negroe dance, in which he bears his part with astonishing agility and the most vigorous exertions, keeping time and cadence most exactly with the music of a banjo (a large hollow instrument with three strings) and a quaqu (somewhat resembling a drum) until he exhausts himself, and scarcely has time or strength to return home much before the hour he is called forth to toil the next day.

He sleeps on a bench, or on the ground, with an old scanty single blanket, and not always even that, to serve both for bed and covering. His clothing consists of a shirt and trowsers made of coarse hempen stuff in the summer, with the addition of a woolen jacket, breeches, and shoes in the winter.

In the same manner the female slaves are treated, with respect to fare, labour and repose. Even when they breed, they seldom lose more than a week's work either in the delivery or suckling the child.

These wretched beings are obliged to be entirely passive, nor dare resist, or even defend themselves against any injury from the whites, for the law directs a negroe's arm to be struck off, who raises it against a white person on any pretence whatever.

Fortunately for them they seem to be endowed with an apathy, or satisfied disposition, which, notwithstanding their degraded situation and the rigid severity to which their race is subjected, renders them apparently jovial, contented and happy. Were it not for this peculiar blessing of Providence, human nature, unequal to the weight, must sink under the pressure of such complicated misery.

Having had frequent occasion, in the course of our description of the mode of life these people lead, to mention homminy, hoe cake, &c. we deem it necessary to explain those terms.

Homminy is an American dish made of Indian corn freed from the husks, boiled along with a small pro-

portion of a large kind of French beans, until it becomes almost a pulp. It is in general use, and, to most palates, agreeable. Hoe-cake is Indian corn ground into meal kneaded into dough, and baked on a hot, broad, iron hoe. This is in common use, but not so palatable as the former.

We shall now give a description of the persons, dispositions, character, customs, &c. of the Indians, or original inhabitants of America.

These people go under divers denominations, as Lake Indians, Attalvavas, Bulls, Delawares, Shawnees, Mowhawks, Cherokees, Chickelaws, Creeks, &c. &c.

The Indians of America are tall, straight, and well proportioned in their limbs. Their bodies are strong, but their strength is of a species adapted to support hardship rather than perform labour. Their features are regular, their complexion somewhat of a copper colour, their hair long, black and strong as that of a horse.

They generally wear only a blanket wrapped about them, or a shirt, both which they purchase of the European settlers. Those who first visited these parts found some nations entirely naked, and others with a coarse cotton cloth, wove by themselves, round their waist; but in the northern parts their whole bodies are in winter covered with skins.

The Indians are not deficient in natural understanding or ingenuity, many of them shewing a capacity for some art or science.

One of their leading characteristics is revenge, to gratify which an Indian will travel on foot several hundred miles through woods in night and darkness, secreting himself during the day to avoid suspicion. Notwithstanding this revengeful disposition, laudable qualities are attributed to them, and many are represented by writers as entertaining noble, spirited and just ideas. Generally speaking, they have no great command over their sensual appetites, and are particularly addicted to inebriation.

Another leading trait of the character of these Indians is duplicity, in the art of which, notwithstanding the uncultivated state of their minds, they excel the most subtle of the whites. But the true cause of this complete dissimulation seems to have arisen from the treacherous and barbarous usage they first received from the whites, the remembrance of which leads them to caution against future snares and treacherous designs. Their disposition, however, whether hostile or amicable, is of little avail at present, as they are not sufficiently powerful either to contend against the whites in arms, or to do them any material injury. It must, however, be granted, that though implacable enemies, they are zealous, steady friends, and that those whites who behave to them with uprightness and affability are greatly respected by them, and gain an ascendancy over them.

The Indians are much less averse to Europeans than to the whites born in America. The white Americans also have the most rancorous antipathy to the whole race of Indians, who, in general, do not appear to entertain any dislike to such of the British or French that are natives of Europe; nor have the real British or French any particular aversion to them as the native Americans have.

Polygamy is practised in some nations; but it is not general. Though incontinent before wedlock, the chastity of their women after marriage is remarkable. The mothers are very fond of their children, and often thereby induced to shew them too much indulgence.

The men are remarkable for their indolence, on which they seem even to value themselves, saying, that labour would degrade them, and belongs solely to the women.

The Indians, in general, possess great patience and equanimity, with the command of most passions except that of revenge. They are grave on serious occasions, observant of what passes in conversation, and cool and deliberate in offering opinion.

The darling passion of these Indians is liberty in its fullest extent; to this they sacrifice every consideration. Though some tribes are found amongst them with a head, whom they call king, his power is rather persuasive than coercive; and he is revered as a father, more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice. The great council is composed of heads of tribes and families, with such whose capacity has raised them to the same degree of consideration. In these councils, which are public, they propose all matters that concern the state. Upon these occasions they entrust their sentiments with a person who is called their speaker or orator, there being one of this profession in every tribe or town; and their manner of speaking, in general, is natural, easy, and persuasive. The internal peace, and order of the state, come under the cognizance of the same council. Their suits are few, and soon decided. Criminal matters, if flagrant, are brought before the same jurisdiction; but in ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. Governed, as they are, by manners, not by laws, example and education inspire them with a sacred regard for their constitution, and the customs of their ancestors.

They entertain the most exalted sentiments of friendship, the band of which connects the whole society; and the loss of any of their people, whether by war or a natural death, is lamented by the whole town to which he belongs. No business, however important, is taken in hand, no rejoicing is heard, till all the ceremonies due to the deceased are performed, and these are always executed with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, and then interred in the most pompous ornaments of the deceased. After some time, the relations revisit the grave, clothe the remains of the body in new ornaments, and repeat the solemnities of the first interment.

But the most striking instance of their friendship, and, at the same time, the greatest instance of their regard, to their deceased brethren, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls, which is celebrated every eight or ten years. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the councils of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing necessary for celebrating it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhausted on this occasion, and all the ingenuity of the Indians displayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and be witnesses of the solemnity. All those who had died since the last feast of souls are now taken out of their graves. Those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and, when all the bodies they can possibly collect, are brought to the great rendezvous of mortality, they are dressed in the finest skins they can procure. A feast is held on this solemn occasion, when their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses that took place between them are recounted. A large pit is dug in the ground, and the bodies re-interred with pomp, with mourning, and with lamentation. Though among these savage nations this custom is impressed with strong marks of ferocity of their nature, it argues a respect for the memory of the dead, and a tender feeling of their absence.

The chief occupations of these Indians are hunting and war. No man is considered as brave and useful among his tribe, till he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with the scalp of an enemy. When their chiefs resolve upon a war, the principal officer summons the youth of the town to which he belongs; the war-kettle is set on the fire; the war songs and dances commence; and the most hideous howlings, without intermission, are heard over the whole track of country. All the warriors have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with dashes and streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance.

They never fight in the open field, but on very extraordinary occasions. Secrecy is the soul of all their

actions, and on this the success of the expedition entirely depends. During their marches they light no fire to warm themselves, or dress their food. They lie close to the ground in the day-time, and march only in the night-time, and even then with the greatest precaution. When they discover an army of the enemy, they throw themselves flat on their faces among the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted exactly to resemble. They generally let a party pass unmolested, and then rising a little, and setting up a tremendous shout, which they call the war-hoop, they pour a shower of musket balls upon the enemy. The party attacked returns the same cry, and every man shelters himself behind a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party the moment they raise themselves from the ground to give the second fire. After fighting for some time in this manner, they leave their covert, and rush upon each other with small axes, which they use with great dexterity. The contest is soon decided, and the conquerors satiate their savage fury, with the most horrid insults and barbarities, on the dead bodies of the enemy, which they scalp and treat in a manner shocking to humanity.

But the fate of prisoners is still more deplorable, when they are so unhappy as to be sentenced to death, which depends on the caprice of the victors. In this case they first strip the wretched victim, and fixing two posts into the ground, fasten to them two pieces of wood, from one to the other; one about two feet from the ground, the other about five or six feet higher; then obliging him to mount upon the lower cross piece, they tie his legs to it a little asunder; and his hands are extended, and tied to the angles formed by the other piece. In this posture they burn him all over the body, sometimes daubing him first with pitch. The whole village, men, women, and children, assemble round him, every one torturing him in what manner they please, each striving to exceed the other in cruelty as long as he has life. This is the most usual method of murdering their prisoners; but sometimes they fasten them to a single stake, and build a fire round them. At other times they cruelly mangle their limbs, cut off their fingers and toes, joint by joint, and sometimes scald them to death.

Their military appearance is very odd and terrible. They cut all their hair, except a spot on the crown of their head, and pluck off their eye-brows. The lock left upon the head is divided into several parcels, each of which is stiffened and intermixed with beads and feathers of various shapes and colours, the whole twisted and connected together. They paint themselves with pigment down to the eye-brows, which they sprinkle over with white down. The gristles of their ears are slit almost round, and hung with ornaments. Their noses are bored, and hung with beads; and their faces painted with various colours. On their breasts are medals of various metals; and, by a string round their necks, is suspended that horrid weapon called the scalping-knife.

The weapons used by those who trade with the Europeans are commonly a firelock, hatchet, and scalping-knife; but the others use bows, tomahawks, and pikes. The head of the tomahawk is a round knob of solid wood, calculated to knock a man down. It has on the other side a point, bending a little towards the handle; and near the center, where the handle pierces the head, another point projects forward, of a considerable length, which serves to thrust with like a spear. The tomahawk is ornamented with paintings and feathers, disposed and variegated in many significant forms, according to the occasion and end for which it is used. When they solicit an offensive or defensive alliance with a whole nation, they send an embassy with a whole belt of wampum, and a bloody hatchet, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies. The wampum-belt consists of a kind of cylindrical beads, made of white and black shells, which are esteemed among them as silver and gold are among us. They

They dye the wampum of various colours and shades, and, as they are made, significant of almost any thing they please. By these their records are kept, and their thoughts communicated to one another as ours are by writing. Thus the belts that pass from one nation to another, in all important transactions, are carefully preserved in the cabbins of their chiefs, and serve both as a record or history, or as a public treasure.

The calumet, or pipe of peace, is of no less importance, nor is it less revered among them. The bowl of this pipe is made of a kind of soft red stone, easily wrought, and hollowed out. The stem is of cane, or a kind of light wood, painted of different colours, and adorned with the head, tails, and feathers, of the most beautiful birds. The use of the calumet is to smoke either tobacco or some other herb, when they enter into an alliance, or any solemn engagement; this being esteemed the most solemn oath that can be taken. The size and decorations of their calumets are commonly proportioned to the importance of the occasion, to the quality of the persons to whom they are presented, and to the esteem and regard they have for them.

Religion is little known, and as little practised, by the American Indians. There are, indeed, nations among them which seem to pay some homage to the sun and moon; and as most of them have a notion of the existence of invisible beings, who intermeddle in their affairs, they often mention demons and other spirits, particularly one whom they call *Areskoui*, or the god of war, whom they always invoke before they march against an enemy. Though destitute of religion, they abound in superstitions, are great observers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with the greatest eagerness. Hence their country abounds in diviners, augurs, and magicians; and on their predictions they greatly rely, in all affairs relative to health, hunting, or war.

These Indians formerly inhabited the sea coasts, where they were very numerous, but have since retired into the internal parts of the country; so that few of them are found within less than two or three hundred miles of the sea. Some of them have had parcels of land allotted them in several of the colonies, where they have been formed into societies; yet it has been found, that, in proportion as they lay by their ancient customs, and conform to our manner of life, they dwindle away, either because the change is prejudicial to their constitutions, or because they have then greater opportunities of procuring spirituous liquors, of which both sexes are inordinately fond. Thus where, a few years ago, there were considerable settlements of them, their name is forgotten; and those who still remain, have, for the most part, joined themselves to other nations in the interior parts of the country, or the banks of lakes and rivers.

We have been favoured by an intelligent correspondent, long resident in North America, with some anecdotes, which display the hospitable disposition of the Indians, and the opinion they entertain of some of the customs of the whites with whom they traffic.

When any of the Indians come into the towns belonging to the whites, the latter are generally observed to crowd around, gaze at, and incommode them, where they desire to be private. The Indians deem this custom very rude, and the highest breach of civility. They have remarked, upon the occasion, that, though they have as much curiosity as the whites, when they come into their towns, they hide themselves behind bushes, where they are to pass, and never intrude themselves into their company.

They observe particular forms in entering one another's villages. To enter a village abruptly, without notifying approach, is reckoned, in travelling strangers, very uncivil. For this cause, as soon as they arrive within hearing, they stop and halloo, remaining there till invited to enter. Two old men usually come out, and conduct them in. There is, in every village, a vacant habitation, called the stranger's house. Here

they are placed, while the old men go round from hut to hut, to acquaint the inhabitants of the arrival of strangers, who may be hungry and weary, and every one sends them what he can spare, of food to eat, and skins to repose on. When the strangers are refreshed, pipes and tobacco are brought, and then, and not before, begins conversation, which usually ends with offers of service, if the strangers have occasion for guides, or any thing necessary for the prosecution of their journey. Nothing is exacted for the entertainment.

The following is a striking proof of the hospitality of a private person. An Indian Interpreter, in going through the country, to carry a message from a governor of one of the states, called at the habitation of an old Indian friend, who embraced him, spread furs for him to sit on, placed before him some boiled beans and venison, and mixed some rum and water for his drink. When he was well refreshed, and had taken his pipe, his host entered into conversation with him concerning particulars. The interpreter satisfied him; and when the discourse began to flag, his Indian friend thus addressed him. "You have, my old acquaintance, lived long among the white people, and know something of their customs. I have been sometimes at Albany, and have observed, that, once in seven days, they shut up their shops, and assemble all in the great house. Tell me, what is it for? What do they there?" "They meet there (replied the interpreter) to hear and learn good things." "I do not doubt (said the Indian) that they tell you so; they have told me the same; but I doubt the truth of what they say, and will tell you my reasons. I went lately to Albany to sell my skins, and buy blankets, knives, powder, rum, &c. When I called upon the merchant with whom I usually deal, and asked him what he would give for beaver, he replied he could not give more than four shillings a pound, but desired to wave all business then, as it was the day their people met together to learn good things, adding, that he was going to the meeting. Finding I could not transact any business with him that day, I went with him. There stood up a man in black, and began to talk to the people very angrily. I did not understand what he said; but observing that he looked much at me, and at my merchant, imagined he was angry at seeing me there, therefore withdrew, and waited near the house till the meeting should break up. I then accosted the merchant, intimating, that I hoped he would give more than four shillings a pound for beaver. He replied he could not give more than three shillings and sixpence. I then applied to several other dealers, but their general tone was three and sixpence, three and sixpence. This confirmed my suspicion, that, notwithstanding their pretence of meeting to learn good things, the real purpose was to consult how to cheat Indians in the price of beaver. Consider but a little, my old friend, and you must be of my opinion. If they met so often to learn good things, they would certainly have learned some before this time. But they are still ignorant. You know our practice. If a white man is travelling through our country, and enters one of our cabins, we all treat him as I treat you. We dry him, if he is wet; we warm him, if he is cold; and give him meat and drink, if he is hungry and thirsty; and we spread furs for him to repose on, demanding nothing in return. If I go into a white man's house at Albany, and ask for victuals and drink, they say, Where is your money? and if I have none, they say, Get out, you Indian dog! You see they have not yet learned those little good things that we need no meetings to be instructed in, because our mothers taught them to us when we were children; and therefore it is impossible their meetings should be, as they say, for any such purpose, or have any such effect. They are only to continue the cheating of Indians in the price of beaver.

SECTION VII.

CAROLINA, NORTH AND SOUTH.

THE provinces of North and South Carolina, comprehending two of the United States of North America, are situated between 30 and 37 degrees of north latitude; and between 76 and 91 degrees of west longitude; being about 700 miles in length, and 380 in breadth. The boundaries are Virginia on the north, the Atlantic Ocean on the east, Georgia on the south, and the Apalachian mountains on the west.

In the two provinces of North and South Carolina are the following rivers, viz. Roanoke or Albemarle, Pamlico, and New Clarendon, in North Carolina; Pedee and Santee, in South Carolina. These rivers are all navigable, and contain fish in abundance, but have troublesome cataracts, which obstruct navigation. The capes of this country are Flatteras, Look-out, and Fear. The harbours are Roanoke and Pamlico, in North Carolina; George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal, in South Carolina. Their respective rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and fall into the Atlantic Ocean.

The climate of Carolina, like that of America in general, is subject to sudden transitions, from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to such violent extremes as Virginia. The winters here are not so severe as in that province. The frosts never have sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina. This is the principal province on the continent of North America subject to hurricanes.

The soil here is various. The country near the sea is little better than an unhealthy salt marsh, and, for eighty miles distant from it, is an even plain, not a hill, a rock, or scarcely a pebble, being to be met with. Beyond this it gradually improves; and at about one hundred miles distance from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is very fertile, adapted to supply the necessaries of life, and exhibiting a pleasing prospect to the view. The worst of the land, however, in the country, produces that valuable article of its commerce indigo.

There is no kind of vegetable but, with proper cultivation, would flourish here. The soil, even when left to itself, yields flowers and flowering shrubs; and all the European plants are in a greater degree of perfection here, than they attain to in their native soil.

The productions of these provinces are vines, some wheat, Indian corn, barley, oats, beans, peas, hemp, flax, cotton, sarsaparilla, tobacco, and indigo. There are the olive, orange, lemon, citron, cypress, oak, and walnut-trees; besides the pine trees, which afford turpentine, tar, and pitch, in bundance. There are several trees that yield gums. Of all these the three great staple commodities are indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. The two latter are confined to South Carolina. Rice is cultivated with peculiar attention there, and constitutes the greatest part of the food of the people in common. The ground is not favourable for the cultivation of wheat, with which the inhabitants are supplied from New York and Pennsylvania, in exchange for rice. The trees here, as in every part of America, grow to an amazing size, their trunks being often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb, and some upwards of 36 feet in circumference. The people of Charles Town, as well as the Indians, hollow these into canoes, which serve to transport goods from place to place; and some of them, consisting of one entire piece of timber, are large enough to carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch. There is a tree in this country which distils an oil, very efficacious in the cure of wounds; and another which yields a very salutary balm. These provinces produce large quantities of excellent honey, of which is made a fine spirit, and mead equal to Malaga sack.

The original animals of this country are the same as those of Virginia. European animals abound here: it is not uncommon for an individual to possess three hundred head of cattle; some are said to have more than a thousand. They are turned out in the morning, and range the forests for food; but their calves being kept in fenced pastures, they return to them in the evening. The horses and hogs are equally numerous.

The beavers are destroyed here, as in other places, by the encouragement the Indians receive to kill them for the profit arising from the sale of their skins.

The Carolinians cultivated some tobacco; but their chief trade lay in provisions; for they supplied Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward Islands, with beef, pork, grain, peas, butter, suet, raw hides, and leather. They likewise sent to the same islands tar, turpentine, timber, masts and furs; but the last were of an inferior kind. Maize, or Indian corn, thrives here exceedingly; but, in some other respects, the product has not been answerable to the expectation from the soil and climate.

Though many parts of Carolina, especially on the sea-coast, abound with vines, yet no progress worth mentioning has been made in producing wine. The manufactures of silk, notwithstanding the great quantities of mulberry-trees they have, are not very considerable. Though cochineal is found here, the inhabitants seem to neglect the profits arising from that insect; and, for some years, their attention has been chiefly turned towards making indigo.

The Carolinians import all kinds of woollen and linen drapery, hardware, strong beer, cyder, raisins, potters-earth, tobacco pipes, paper, coverlets, mattresses, hats, stockings, gloves, tin-ware, powder and shot, gun flints, cordage, looking-glasses and glass ware, thread, haberdashery and small wares. From Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward Islands they had sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, chocolate, negroes, and silver. From New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, wheat flour, wheat being very backward in the Carolinas; and hard wares and wine from Madeira, and the other islands in the western ocean.

Before the late disturbances the method of settling in this pleasant country was, to pitch upon a void piece of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of 20l. for 1000 acres, and 1s. quit-rent for every 100 acres, or else pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase money: the former method was the most common, and the tenure a freehold. The land being laid out, the purchaser built upon it, raised stock, planted orchards, and made such commodities as when sold procured him slaves, household goods, and other conveniences: after this he yearly increased his capital, and, by industry, became rich.

Both North and South Carolina are divided into districts. The former contains those of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, Halifax, Hillsborough and Salisbury. These districts have their respective counties, but they contain nothing worthy of description.

In the latter are included the districts of Charles-Town, Beaufort, Orangeburgh, George-Town, Camden and Cheraws. The chief towns are, Charles-Town and Port Royal.

Charles-Town is situated in 79 deg. west longitude, and in 32 deg. north latitude; on a peninsula formed by Ashley and Cowper rivers; the former of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and in it is a most secure and commodious harbour; but there is a bar which prevents vessels of more than 200 tons from entering it. The town is well built and pretty strongly fortified both by nature and art. The streets are wide and strait, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. Charles-Town contains about 1000 houses, some of brick and others of wood, but in general handsome, elegant, and very high rented. The church is a spacious building, and executed in elegant taste, and there are also several meeting.

meeting-houses belonging to different sects of dissenters, some of which are very neat. This town was the seat of the governor, and the place where the assembly met. Its vicinity is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are opulent and well bred, and before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, were both shewy and expensive in their dress and manner of living. It ought to be observed, to the honour of the people of Carolina, that when in common with the other colonies they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessities of life, those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as usual.

There are more white people in North than in South Carolina, though the former is not so wealthy as the latter.

In the year 1780 Charles-Town being besieged by the king's troops, surrendered on capitulation with 6000 men in arms prisoners, after the siege had continued seven weeks. It was afterwards evacuated and restored to the Americans.

Port Royal, or Beaufort Town, is situated on the island of Port Royal, in 31 deg. north lat. 100 miles south of Charles Town, having a capacious harbour, capable of receiving the royal navy of England, if they could get over the bar: however, ships of good burthen may enter, there being 18 feet depth at low water. George Town is about 50 miles north of Charles-Town.

All attempts to form a settlement in Carolina proved abortive till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and other persons of distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and absolute jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to embark for the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws composed by the celebrated Locke.

They began their first settlement at a point of land near the southern limits of their district between two navigable rivers, where they laid the foundation of the city, called Charles Town, in honour of king Charles. This town was designed to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. Observing what advantages the other colonies derived from opening an harbour for refugees, they resolved to benefit by the example, so that they extended the scheme, and gave an unlimited toleration to people of all religious persuasions.

Religious disputes, however, in process of time, produced dissensions, tumults and riots, whereby the colony was rent; and these, with some disagreements among the proprietors, threatened its destruction. The legislature now thought it time to interpose, and an act of parliament was accordingly passed, by virtue of which this colony was put under the immediate protection of the crown. The proprietor accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. both for the property and jurisdiction; but earl Granville retained his share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two districts and two governments, North and South. This happened in the year 1728, and from that time peace being made with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, the colony began to flourish, and wealth and internal tranquillity succeeded to poverty and commotions.

When the property of Carolina was purchased by his late majesty, orders were issued for building towns here, each of which was to have a district of 20,000 acres of land square, to be divided into shares of five acres for each man, woman, or child of one family, which was to be augmented, as the planters should be in a condition to cultivate a larger quantity: each town was also to be formed into a parish, the extent whereof was to be about six miles round; and, as soon as the parish contained 100 masters of families, it was

qualified to send two members to the assembly of the province, and to enjoy the same privilege of any of the other provinces.

The government of North Carolina is now vested in a governor, senate, and house of representatives, all elected annually. The executive power is in a governor and seven counsellors. South Carolina is under a governor, senate of 23, and a house of representatives of 202 members.

SECTION VIII.

G E O R G I A .

THIS province is situated between 20 and 33 deg. north latitude, and between 80 and 85 deg. west longitude. It is about 700 miles in length and 120 in breadth. It is bounded by Carolina on the north, by Florida on the south, by the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and by the Apalachian mountains on the west. The rivers in Georgia are the Alatomaha, the Savannah and St. John's; the mouths of the two first form excellent harbours.

To the south of the river Savannah is a capacious road called Teky-Sound, where a large fleet may anchor in between 10 and 14 fathoms water, being landlocked, and having a safe entrance over the bar.

The climate of this province is much the same as that of Carolina. The soil is in some parts less proper for cultivation than in others, but it is fertile in general.

Georgia produces Indian corn, wheat, oats and barley. Here are also potatoes, pumpkins, water and musk melons, cucumbers, English and Italian peas, fallading in general the year round, together with all kinds of sweet herbs and pot herbs. Nectarines, peaches and plumbs are as plentiful as apples in England. The fruit of the mulberry trees are not comparable in flavour to those of England, but the leaves are excellent food for silk worms. Olives abound here in perfection, and the oranges exceed those of the provinces in general. The trees of Georgia are pines, oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, black and white cypress, white and red laurels, bays, myrtles, of the berries of which they make candles; sassafras, an infusion of which makes good drink, beech trees, and many others.

In the winter season, from November to March, the country abounds with game, such as wild geese, ducks, teals, widgeons, woodcocks, and partridges, but they are smaller than those in England. There is a creature between a rabbit and a hare, which is good eating, and in very cold weather there are vast flights of wild pigeons, which are easily shot. The summer game are deer and ducks. The flesh of the bears cubs nearly resembles in taste that of young pigs.

Though the woods abound with snakes, none are venomous but the rattle-snake. The rivers abound with sharks and alligators. Oysters are innumerable, but not so well flavoured as the English. There are also crabs, muscles, and large prawns.

The inhabitants export some corn to the West Indies, raise some rice, and have made some progress in the cultivation of indigo.

Of all the manufactures none seems so practicable here, nor more beneficial, than the raising of silk, the soil being well adapted to the culture of mulberry-trees, and the climate highly benign to silk worms.

From the quay may be seen the whole course of the river towards the sea one way, and, on the other, for about sixty miles up the country. This river is navigable for large boats from Savannah to Augusta, which are 200 miles distant from each other. Augusta is situated in one of the most fertile parts of the province, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. Frederica is a regular fortress, mounted with several pieces of cannon. At Savannah the Rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-house, which was afterwards converted into a college for the reception of students

dents in divinity. Savannah was in possession of the British troops in October 1779, when being besieged by the Americans and French, they repulsed them with great slaughter. It was, however, evacuated and restored to the Americans.

In 1732 a number of gentlemen formed a design of making that track of land called Georgia, which is situated between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha, serviceable to Great Britain, by erecting it into a kind of bulwark, for the southern British colonies, against the Spaniards; for producing great benefits to the mother country; but, above all, of giving employment to vast numbers of people who were burthensome at home to their friends and parishes; and petitioned the king for a charter, which was accordingly granted them. This charter, which was dated that year, constituted them a corporation, by the name of trustees for establishing a colony in Georgia, including all that country situated in South Carolina, which lies from the most northern stream of the Savannah River, along the coast, to the most southern stream of the Alatamaha, and west from the heads of the said rivers, in a direct line, to the South Sea. The corporation was vested with all the necessary powers, for the term of 21 years from the date of the charter, particularly to collect benefactions for fitting out the emigrants, and supporting them till their houses could be built, and their lands cleared. General Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, a gentleman of unbounded benevolence and public spirit, commanded the first embarkation to Georgia, to whom the Creek nation voluntarily relinquished their right to all the lands lying between the above mentioned rivers, which they did not use themselves. Upon this Mr. Oglethorpe laid out the town of Savannah, and erected several forts to cover the colony against any hostile attempts of the Spaniards or Indians. In the year 1734 a considerable number of Protestant Saltzburghers went over, who, with others of their countrymen, who followed, were settled in a town on the Savannah, which they called Ebenezer, and, by their habits of industry and sobriety, they soon became a considerable settlement. In 1734 another embarkation, consisting of 300 men, 110 women, 102 boys, and 83 girls, arrived from England, most of them at the public expence. In 1735 about 160 Scotch Highlanders went over, and settled themselves upon Alamataha rivers, 16 miles by water from the Island of St. Simon. They gave the name of Darien to a small fort they built there; and that of New Inverness to a small town they afterwards added to it. In February, 1736, Mr. Oglethorpe, with about 300 passengers on board two ships, anchored in the road of Savannah, and soon after laid the foundations of the town and fort of Frederica. Besides the private benefactions received by the trustees during the term of their charter, large supplies were granted by parliament. In 1739 a specimen of Georgian raw silk was exhibited in London, which the merchants, who dealt in that commodity, declared to be as good as any raw silk that came from Italy, and worth, at least, 20s. per pound. In 1742 about 5 or 6000 Spaniards and Indians invaded Georgia, in about 50 vessels of all kinds, but were repulsed by General Oglethorpe, at the head of the English forces, and a small body of Indians. From that time it remained undisturbed, but not out of danger from the Spaniards, till the reduction of St. Augustine by the English.

In process of time new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over; so that before the year 1752, the settlers in the province were every where numerous. Dissentions at length sprang up, when government interposed, and placed Georgia on the same footing with Carolina. Since the revolt of the colonies, the government of Georgia has been vested in a governor, executive council of 12, and house of assembly of 72 representatives. It has a church, a court-house, a storehouse, a goal, a wharf, a guard-house, and other public buildings. There is also a constant watch. The houses are regularly built at some distance from each other, for the sake of being more airy, and form several spacious squares and streets.

THE INDEPENDENT STATE OF VERMONT.

THE independent state of Vermont contains an extensive track of country, situated to the eastward of New Hampshire and Massachusetts Bay, and to the north of Connecticut, between the river of that name, and Hudson's River. It was formed by emigrations from New Hampshire and New-York. The emigrants having settled on lands to the westward, neither claimed or cultivated by the people of the provinces before-mentioned, soon grew numerous, and spread themselves to a considerable extent.

The inhabitants of those provinces had long been jealous of the rising greatness of the colony of Vermont, and desirous of crushing it, but never could effect their design, while the colonies were under the jurisdiction of the mother country. When the late dissentions began, they represented the Vermontese to Congress as a disaffected and encroaching people. The Vermontese, on their part, professed their attachment to the general American cause, and requested representation in congress, in common with the other states. Congress, far from complying with the request of the Vermontese, decided in favour of the colonies of New Hampshire and New York, and contracted the boundaries of that of Vermont. In process of time, however, congress relaxed in their severity, and transmitted a favourable proposal to the Vermontese, which being acceded to, matters were adjusted in April, 1782. With respect to person, manners, customs, &c. it is reasonable to conclude, that the people of this province bear resemblance, in such particulars, to those of the provinces from which they emigrated. The climate, soil, and produce, are much the same as those of New Hampshire and New York.

Properly speaking, there is no established form of government. Ethan Allen, famous for the expedition he undertook against Ticonderago in 1775, without any other aid than that of a body of volunteers who followed his fortunes, made himself chief of this country. This enterprising genius formed there an assembly of representatives. This assembly grants lands, and the country is subject to its own laws alone. The inhabitants were known, for a considerable time, by the name of "Green Mountain Boys;" but thinking that an ignominious appellation, they Frenchified Green Mountain, which made Verd Mont, and, by corruption, Vermont. Hence the origin of the name of this state.



SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

FLORIDA, EAST AND WEST.

THIS country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot some years before it was known to the Spaniards. That nation, in 1512, gave it a vast extent, comprehending, under the name of Florida, all the country from the 25th to the 39th degree of north latitude. But what is now properly called the Peninsula of Florida, is situated between 25 and 31 degrees of north latitude, and in about 85 degrees of west longitude. It is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the south by the Gulph of Mexico, on the east by the Straits of Bahama and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the river Mississippi. It is about 500 miles in length, and 440 in breadth.

Of the mountains the most considerable are the Apalachian, which divide Carolina, and the rest of the American States, from Florida. A vast number of noble rivers pass through this country, the most of which rise in the Apalachian mountains, and fall into the Gulph of Mexico, or the Atlantic Ocean. The chief are the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Coza, Coussa, or Mobile, and the river St. John. The Mississippi, which the French call St. Louis, is, in many respects, the finest river in the world. It runs a very long course, free from shoals and cataracts, and is navigable within 60 leagues of its source. In these rivers is good store of fish.

Florida, by the treaty of peace in 1763, was ceded by Spain to Great Britain, who divided it into two colonies, East and West Florida, according to which we shall consider it, having premised, that, in the year 1780, it was taken by the Spaniards, and ceded to them by Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

EAST FLORIDA comprehends about twelve millions of acres, which is about the quantity of Ireland. In the eastern and southern parts are a number of islands, formed by narrow straits and bays, which run in from the west, and join others from the south and east. One of the principal of the bays is called Laguna del Espiritu Santo, which extends, from north to south, about 27 leagues, and is near 8 leagues wide. It has several communications with the bays on the west side of the peninsula, as well as with the Gulph of Florida. To the south-east of this part of the country is a chain of islands and rocks, called Cayos de los Martyrs, or the Keys of the Martyrs, which extend, in a circular form, at the distance of thirteen leagues from Punta Florida, to the most southern point. In 1773 a fleet of 14 galleons, on their return through the Gulph of Florida for Old Spain, ran foul of these rocks, through the ignorance or inattention of the commander in chief. One of the captains disobeying the signals, avoided the danger, and saved his ship; but the other thirteen were entirely lost, with great part of their treasure.

The soil, except in the middle, is very low. The shores are sandy or marshy to a great distance within land.

The country abounds with all kinds of timber and fruit trees, especially pines, laurels, palms, cedars, cypress, and chestnut trees, which grow to an extraordinary length and size, and, with the oaks, afford nourishment to swine. But the wood most prized, and in greatest plenty, is the sassafras, of which remarkable quantities are exported. Excellent limes and prunes also grow here in great abundance, with vines of various sorts, and cotton trees, hemp, flax, pulse, roots, and herbs. The root called mendihoca, of which the cassava flour and bread are made, is very common. Of the fruits there is one called tuna, so exquisite and

wholesome, when ripe, that, among the Europeans, it goes by the name of the cordial julep.

There are woods which serve for dying, as fustic, braziletto, logwood, &c. There are shrubs, which may be of great consequence in trade, such as the myrtle-wax shrub, which grows in every soil, the opuntia, the imna shrub, &c. To this may be added, that East Florida has the greatest part of the fruit trees of the New World. East Florida has also much of the plant called barilla, or kali, with which pearl-ashes are made, and of which considerable quantities are imported into Europe for divers useful purposes. Here is a sort of grain like our oats, and when rightly prepared exceeds our best oatmeal. It grows spontaneously in marshy places, and by the sides of rivers, like rushes. The Indians, when it is ripe, take handfulls and shake them into their canoes, and what escapes them, falling into the water, produces, without further trouble, the next year's crop.

But the most singular production in the vegetable system in this, or in any other country, is the cabbage-tree, called by some naturalists the palmello royal. The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming appearance of a substantial basis to support its towering weight. It is strait as an arrow, rises above an hundred feet in height, and the trunk near the earth is about six or seven feet in circumference, the whole body growing tapering to the top. The inside texture of the leaves appears as thread-like filaments, which being spun are used in making cordage of every kind as well as fishing-nets. What is called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which, when raw, have something of the taste of almonds, and when boiled something of that of cabbage, but sweeter and more agreeable.

Here are good beef, veal and mutton, with plenty of hogs, especially on the sea coast, and also not only cattle for draught of the Tartar breed, but horses for the saddle, that may be purchased for any trifle of European commodity.

The wild beasts of this country are panthers, bears, catamountains, buffaloes, deer, hares, goats, rabbits, beavers, otters, foxes, flying squirrels, &c.

The feathered creation is numerous, as cranes, wild geese and ducks, turtle doves, partridges, thrushes, jays, hawks and crows. The maccoa, the humming-bird, and a great number of others, some of which are of beautiful plumage.

All the low lands on the coast, as far as they can be approached, are bordered with mangrove trees, to which adhere an incredible number of small oysters, of exquisite flavour. Others, much larger, and not so delicious, are found in the sea, and that in such numbers, that they form shelves therein, which, at first view, seem like rocks level with the surface of the water.

The other products of East Florida are ambergris, cochineal, indigo, and silk-grass. It also produces amethysts, turquoises, lapis-lazuli, and other precious stones: likewise copper, quicksilver, pit-coal, iron ore, and a kind of stone pitch, called copea, which the Spaniards use as tar for their shipping.

The principal town in East Florida is St. Augustine, standing on the eastern coast of the peninsula, about 70 leagues from the Gulph of Florida and Channel of Bahama, 30 south of the river Alatahama or Alatumacha, and 47 from the town and river of Savannah. It is situated in latitude 30 degrees north, and lies along the shore, or the bottom of a hill, in the form of a parallelogram, the streets cutting each other at right angles. The port is formed by an island and a long point of

of land, almost divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the sea two miles south of the town. About a mile to the northward of the town stands the castle, called St. John's Fort, defended by four bastions, and pretty strong. The entrance into the port lies between the island and the point of land, and is about one mile and a quarter over, as is, indeed, most part of the coast of Florida. Down by the side, about three quarters of a mile south of the town, stands the church and monastery of St. Augustine. The best built part of the town is on the north side, leading to the castle. On the north and south are two Indian towns without the city walls.

WEST FLORIDA is a long track of land of more than 80 leagues, extending from east to west, along the coast of the Bay of Mexico. The climate is hot, damp, and unhealthy, particularly near the sea. The strand takes up a great depth, and is composed of white and dry sand. On advancing into the country, which is pretty even, the climate is found to be more healthy, and the lands more fruitful. They have annually two harvests of maize. They have also good pasturage, and plenty of cattle. The trees and plants are much the same as in East Florida; but the west affords some articles which are wanted there. The inland parts are also much better.

Pearls are found here in great abundance; but the Indians prize the European beads more. Upon the whole coast, for 200 leagues, are several vast beds of oysters: and in the fresh water lakes and rivers is a sort of shell fish, between a muscle and an oyster, in which is found abundance of pearls, many of which are larger than ordinary.

The French inhabitants, who are numerous here, are chiefly employed in the building ships, and cultivating rice, cotton, and indigo. Their cotton is very fine, of a clear white, and their indigo is as good as that from St. Domingo.

On the banks of the Mississippi are several springs and lakes, which produce excellent salt. The plants producing hemp and flax abound here, as well as that sort of silk-grass of which are made such stuffs as come from the East Indies, called herb stuffs. Vast flights of wild pigeons come here at some seasons of the year, and roost on the trees in great numbers. In many places are mines of pit-coal; and iron ore is often found near the surface of the earth, whence a metal is extracted little inferior to steel. Here are also some mines of quick-silver, or rather the metal from which it is extracted. It is only used by the original natives to paint their faces and bodies in time of war, or at high festivals.

The inhabitants of West Florida are more numerous than those of East Florida, it being more healthy and inviting, especially in the western parts, near the banks of the Mississippi.

The chief town of West Florida is Pensacola. The landing-place is within the bay, the town being situated on a sandy shore, perfectly white, that can only be approached by small vessels. The road, however, is one of the best in all the Gulf of Mexico, as vessels may lie there in safety against every kind of wind. The bottom affords excellent anchorage; and the sea, which is seldom agitated, on account of being surrounded by the land on every side, is capable of containing a great number of ships. On the west side of the harbour stands the town, defended by a small fort. A very fine river falls into the Bay of Mexico on the east side of the harbour, after running above 100 miles through the country. The land here produces plenty of the trees fit for masts of ships, and accordingly many of them are cut down, and carried to Vera Cruz for that purpose.

As there are many particulars respecting person, dress, manners, and customs, which are peculiar to the original Indians of Florida, we shall present them to the reader. The bodies of these people are robust, and well proportioned. Both sexes go naked, except having a deer skin round the waist. They stain their skin with the juice of plants, and have long black hair, which

they have a method of twisting and binding upon the head, so as to render it rather becoming. The women, who, in general, have good features, and are well made, are so active, that they will climb with amazing swiftness to the tops of the highest trees, and swim across broad rivers with their children on their backs. The men make use of bows and arrows with great dexterity. The strings of their bows are made of the sinews of stags; and they point the ends of their arrows with sharp stones, or the teeth of fishes. With respect to religion, they are idolaters.

Their oeconomy in the management and distribution of their corn, which is accounted the common stock of the public, is well worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to serve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpose, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of persons it contains. The soil is, indeed, capable of affording much more corn than they are able to consume; but they choose to sow no more than will serve them for that term, retiring, for the remainder of the year, into the recesses of the forests, where they build huts of palm trees, and live upon roots, wild fowl, and fish. They are very fond of the flesh of alligators, which has a strong musky smell. Their meat is dressed in the smoke upon a gridiron made of sticks, and water serves for their common drink.

The people are, in general, satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them succeed to the father's dignity.

The government of the original Floridas is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called caciques. They are frequently at war with each other. In their warlike expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and sometimes fish dried in the sun. The chief marches at the head, carries a bow in one hand, and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back; and the rest follow tumultuously with the same arms.

In their warlike deliberations, if the matter be of great moment, their priests, who are also a kind of physicians, are called in, and their opinions particularly asked. Then the cacique carries round a kind of liquor like our tea, made by the infusion of the leaves of a certain tree.

The funeral of a deceased cacique is celebrated with great solemnity. They place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accustomed to drink, and stick great numbers of arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with fasting and loud lamentations. The generality of them cut off their hair as a singular testimony of their sorrow. Their chieftains also set fire to, and consume, all the household furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceased, after which some old women are deputed, who every day, during the space of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings, according to the practice of some more civilized nations, and particularly the ancient Romans, who frequently hired women at the funerals of their relations and friends.

SECTION II.

LOUISIANA.

LOUISIANA, a country of considerable extent, is bounded on the north by the territories of the wild Indians, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, on the east by Florida, and on the west by New Mexico. It extends from latitude 26 to lat. 40 deg. north.

Notwithstanding the several attempts of the Spaniards and French to make settlements in this country, which generally miscarried, it appears that the latter had hardly any settlements in it till 1720, except that of Isle Dauphine, on the banks of the Mobile, about 80 leagues east of the mouth of the Mississippi. This

This country may be considered as comprehended under the government of Florida. It was ceded, in part, to the English by the treaty of 1763, and by them, together with Florida, ceded to the Spaniards, according to the treaty of 1783. Louisiana is rendered exceedingly pleasant and fertile by the overflowing of several rivers at certain seasons. The meadows are delightful, and well adapted to agriculture. In some parts the ground yields two or three crops; for in the winter there are only heavy rains, without any nipping frosts. All the trees known in Europe flourish here, together with a great variety of others unknown to us; such as the tall cedar, which distils an odoriferous gum; and the cotton tree, which is of a prodigious height. The soil, to the southward, is adapted to the cultivation of indigo and rice; and, to the northward, to that of wheat. The whole country abounds with variety of game, fowl, and cattle, and all the necessaries of life.

The rivers of Louisiana, besides the Mississippi, are St. Francis, the Black River, and the Mobile, which waters a very fine track of country, and forms, at its mouth, a noble bay.

In the Isle of Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, is the town of New Orleans, the capital of Louisiana; both of which derived their names from the French. New Orleans is the residence of the governor, grand council, and courts of justice, as well as the emporium of Louisiana.

The original inhabitants of this country differ, in general, from those of Canada, being more sprightly and active, and less thoughtful and morose. They knew nothing of any instruments made of iron and steel, much less of fire-arms, till the coming of the French, all their cutting tools being very ingeniously made of sharp flints, and used with great dexterity. Their principal ornaments are bracelets, pendants, and collars; some of which are pearl, but spoiled for want of knowing in what manner to bore them.

S E C T I O N III.

NEW MEXICO AND CALIFORNIA.

NEW Mexico, including California, is 2000 miles long, and 1600 broad. It is bounded on the east by Louisiana, on the south by New Spain, or Mexico Proper, on the west by the Gulph of California, and on the north by high mountains. It is situated between 25 and 37 degrees of north latitude, and between 94 and 126 degrees of west longitude. The country is watered by rivers and rivulets. The principal rivers are those called the Rio Solado, and the Rio del Norte. There are several smaller ones that fall into the Gulph of Mexico; and some bays, ports, and creeks on that coast, that might be converted into good harbours, were the Spaniards possessed, in any degree, of that active spirit which animates the other maritime powers of Europe. The lands are intersected with rising grounds and fertile plains, covered with trees, some of which are fit for timber, and others produce various sorts of fruits. Here are all kinds of wild and tame cattle, with variety of fowl; and the rivers are stored with the choicest fish.

Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, is situated 130 leagues from the sea, near the source of the river Rio del Norte. It is an opulent city, regularly built, and the see of a bishop, suffragan of Mexico, as well as the seat of the governor of the country, who is subordinate to the viceroy of Mexico.

New Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of different nations, entirely unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, the several tribes of whom are distinguished by their towns and settlements. They are a resolute and warlike people, fond of liberty, averse to tyranny and oppression, and formidable on account of the dexterity with which they handle their bows and arrows. When the Spaniards first entered the country, they found the natives pretty well clothed,

their lands cultivated, their villages neat, and their towns built of stone, in which they discovered some knowledge of architecture, not drawn from the rules of art, but the convenience dictated by nature. They were great lovers of mules flesh, and, upon that account, frequently seized the mules of Spanish travellers, leaving their chests of silver upon the road, because they set no value upon that metal. Their princes were little more than leaders of their armies, elected at the pleasure of the people for their wisdom or valour. These people may now be said to be rather the allies, than the subjects, of the Spaniards. The Spaniards have been rather sparing in their accounts of this country, which must be imputed either to their ignorance or caution.

California, the most northern of all the Spanish dominions on the continent of America, towards the Pacific Ocean, was for a long time supposed to be an island, but at last was found to be only a peninsula, issuing from the north coasts of America, and extending into the Pacific Ocean 800 miles from Cape Sebastian, in 43 deg. 30 min. north latitude; towards the south-east, as far as Cape St. Lucar, in 22 deg. 30 min. north latitude. The eastern coasts lies nearly parallel with that of Mexico, opposite to it; and the sea between is called the Gulph or Lake of California, or the Vermilion Purple or Red Sea.

The breadth of the peninsula is very unequal. Towards the north it is near 200 miles broad, but at the southern extremity it tapers away, and is scarcely 50 miles over.

California was first discovered to be a peninsula by a German jesuit, who landed in it from the Island of Sumatra, and passed into New Mexico, without crossing any other water than Rio Azul, or the Blue River. The more southern part was known to the Spaniards soon after the discovery of Mexico, for Cortez discovered it in 1535: but they did not penetrate far into it till some time after, contenting themselves with the pearl fishery on the coast.

It was visited by our countryman Sir Francis Drake, in 1578, who called it New Albion, and took possession of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth, since which time, however, the English have made no pretensions to it.

In summer the heats are violent along the coasts, but up the country the air is more temperate, and, in winter, sometimes cold. However, in so extensive a country, there must be great variations both of soil and climate; and though, upon a general view, California appears rather rough, craggy, and unpromising, with due culture it would furnish most of the necessaries of life.

The country produces timber fit for ship-building, and has most of the fruits to be found in other parts of America. Here is a species of manna, supposed to fall with the dew, and to become inspissated on the leaves of the trees. Botanists are agreed that this manna is a juice oozing from the tree; though the natives think that it drops from heaven.

With respect to animals, here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; a particular species of sheep, buffaloes, beavers, or animals much resembling them, a peculiar species of wild dogs, lions, wild cats, and many other wild beasts. The horses, mules, asses, oxen, sheep, hogs, goats, and other quadrupeds, that have been imported hither from Spain and Mexico, multiply exceedingly. Of the two species of deer peculiar to California, that called by the natives taye is greatly esteemed, and eat with the same relish as venison by many Europeans.

Of the feathered kind here is great variety; in particular, the coast is plentifully flocked with peacocks, bustards, geese, cranes, vultures, gulls which are larger than geese, cormorants, mews, quails, linets, larks, nightingales, and many other species.

The multitude and variety of fish with which the Gulph of California, the Pacific Ocean, and the rivers are supplied, is almost incredible. Salmon, turbot, halibut,

barbel, skate, mackarel, pilchards, thornbacks, soles, bonetas, and many other species, are caught here with very little trouble; together with pearl oysters, common oysters, cray-fish, lobsters, and a variety of exquisite shell fish. However, of the testaceous or shell kind, the most remarkable and abundant is the tortoise, caught in the utmost plenty upon the coasts. On the south coast also is a shell fish the most beautiful that can be imagined, being of an elegant vivid blue colour, like the lapis lazuli.

California affords one of the richest pearl fisheries in the world, and is likewise thought to have mines.

Insects swarm here, as in most warm countries; yet they are neither so numerous or troublesome as in some, on account of the dryness of the soil and climate.

There are two considerable rivers in California, viz. Rio Colorado, and Rio du Carmel, with several smaller streams, and fine ports, bays, creeks, and roads, both on the east and west side.

In the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish of all sorts found here, might be of great advantage to any civilized nation.

The original Indians who inhabit California are, in general, well formed and robust, of a healthy countenance, but swarthy complexion. Their habitations are wretched huts, built near the few streams, wells, and ponds found in the country. As they are under the necessity of frequent migrations in search of food, they easily shift their residence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purposes; and it is usual with them, in the severity of winter, to live in subterraneous caverns. Their furniture and property consists of implements for fishing, hunting, and war, in which most of their time is spent. Their boats are only rafts; and their arms are bows, arrows, and jagged clubs.

The dress of the men is little more than a girdle round the waist, with a few ornaments about their hair. The women wear their hair loose. They have also a kind of cloak and petticoat, made of palm leaves; some wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewise frequently adorned with net-work, or strings of pearls in the form of bracelets. The love of ornament prevails among the women more than among the men.

Their greatest ingenuity appears in their fishing nets, which are made with admirable skill, of various colours, and such diversity of texture and workmanship, as cannot be described.

They have a high festival at the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, when they indulge themselves in feasting, dancing, and mirth.

SECTION IV.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Vegetables, Animals, Birds, Fish, Articles of Trade, Mines, Divisions, chief Cities and Towns, Inhabitants, Persons, Dispositions, Manners, Customs, &c.

OLD Mexico, or New Spain, the first valuable acquisition of the Spaniards on the continent of America, lies between 7 deg. 30 min. and 30 deg. 40 min. north latitude, is 2000 miles long, 600 broad, where widest, and has the Isthmus of Darien on the south, New Mexico on the north, the Gulph of Mexico on the east, and the Ocean on the west.

There are some mountains on the western coast of New Spain, near the Pacific Ocean, most of which are said to be volcanos. Several rivers rise in these mountains, and fall some into the Gulph of Mexico, and some into the South Sea, on both of which there are several capes and bays. Among the bays on the gulph are those of Campeachy and Honduras. In the Jacutan, a large peninsula in the Gulph of Mexico, the Spaniards

first discovered that well known plant called tobacco, in the year 1520.

The air of this country is temperate, considering its situation in the torrid zone. The rainy season begins the latter end of April, and continues till September, being preceded by terrible storms, which are so variegated, that the wind blows from almost every point of the heavens, increasing their fury daily till the month of June, at which time the rain falls as if a second deluge were to ensue.

No country under heaven abounds more with grain, delicious fruits, roots, and vegetables, many of which are peculiar to it, or at least to America. Of these the most remarkable are bamboos, mangroves, and logwood, which grow on the coasts; red and white cotton trees, cedars, blood-wood, and maha, of which the natives make ropes and cables; light wood, of which they make floats, being as light as cork; white wood, the cabbage-tree, the calabash, cocoa, and vanilla, which the Spaniards call bexuco, or bainilla; plantains, bananas, pine-apples, sapadillo, avogato pear, mammee, mammee-sapota, grape, prickly, bibby, and other curious fruit-trees; besides which, the Spaniards have introduced most of the European fruits. Mexico also produces the poisonous manchineel apple, gourds of a prodigious size, melons, silk-grass, tamarinds, and locust trees; the little, black, white, and borachio sapotote trees, the last of which takes its name from the inebriating quality of the fruit. To these we may add the Grenadillo de China, creeping-plant, and the may-he, which furnishes the natives with thread for linen and cordage, and also a balsam and liquor, which, when fermented, is as pleasant and strong as wine. From this, too, is distilled a strong spirit, which is not unlike brandy.

Other valuable productions of New Spain are copal, aninie, tacamahaca, earanica, liquid amber, and oil of amber. Balsam of Peru is also found in Mexico, guaiacum, China-root, sassaaparilla, and the root mechoacan, which are well known to druggists and apothecaries, and of excellent use in a variety of distempers. Besides the maize, or native grain of Mexico, the Spaniards have introduced the use of barley, wheat, peas, beans, and other grain.

The numbers of horned cattle here are immense, many of them running wild. Their flesh turns to little account by reason of the extreme heat; but their hides and tallow are productive of great advantages. Swine are very numerous, and their lard is much in request, and used instead of butter throughout the country. Sheep are likewise numerous, but their wool is of no great consideration, being hairy and short. There are several sorts of red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, foxes, jackalls, monkeys, and divers other animals.

With respect to the feathered race, there are, in Mexico, tame poultry, turkeys, pigeons, parrots, paroquets, macaws, humming birds, eagles, vultures, pelicans, cormorants, bats, and a multitude of other species.

On the coasts and banks of rivers are caught alligators, turtle, paracoad, gar fish, mullets, and mackarel, which resemble those of Europe, but are of a very large size. There are oysters and muscles of a prodigious size, also great plenty of lobsters, crabs, and shrimps.

The principal trading commodities of New Spain are wool, cotton, sugar, silk, cochineal, chocolate, feathers, honey, balsams, drugs, dying woods, salt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, amber, pearls, precious stones, jasper, porphyry, exquisite marble, and gold and silver.

The gold and silver mines are found in the rocky barren parts of the country. There are several, it is said, of the former, and no fewer than 1000 of the latter. Gold is also found in grains, or dust, in the sands of rivers and torrents. Whoever discovers a mine of gold or silver is at liberty to work it, paying the king a tenth

a tenth of the product, and limiting himself within 50 yards round the place upon which he has fixed. All the silver and gold, either dug or found in grains, is entered in the royal exchequer; and it is reported, that, notwithstanding great quantities are run and concealed, no less than 2,000,000 of silver marks, weighing eight ounces each, are entered yearly, out of which they coin 700,000 marks, into pieces of eight, quarter pieces, rials, and half pieces; the value of the latter being about three-pence sterling.

The whole of the trade between Old Spain and the Spanish American dominions, is by means of a fleet, called the *flota*, which is fitted out at Cadiz, and destined to La Vera Cruz. The ships are not permitted to break bulk, on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, sugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. These are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagená; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto-Bello; in the same manner as the *flota* serves for New Spain. When the *flota* arrives at the Havannah, and joins the galleons and register ships, which assemble at the same port from all quarters, some of the cleanest and best sailing vessels are dispatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of these several fleets, as well as with treasure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is necessary for their safety.

Register-ships are sent out by merchants at Cadiz and Seville, when they judge that goods must be wanted at any particular ports in the West Indies. Their way is to petition the council of the Indies for a license to send a ship of 300 tons burthen, or under, to that port. They pay 40 or 50 dollars for this license, besides presents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance necessary to the design: for though the license runs only to 300 tons at most, the vessel fitted out is seldom less than 600. The ship and cargo are registered at the pretended burthen. It is required, too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at that port to which she is bound, that she does not exceed the size at which she is registered. All this passes of course. These are what they call register ships, and by these the trade of Spanish America has been carried on for some years past.

Old Mexico is divided into three districts or governments, called audiences, as having sovereign courts, which, though under the inspection of the viceroy, decide all civil and criminal cases. His employment, in point of trust and power, is one of the greatest the Spanish monarch has in his gift; and it is, perhaps, the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. But neither the viceroy, or any other officer, is suffered to hold his post longer than three years. This being the case, the miserable inhabitants become a prey to the rapacity of every new governor. The districts are Guadalajara, Mexico, and Guatemala, comprehending each their respective provinces as follow. Those of Guadalajara are Cinaloa, Culiacan, Xalisco, Guadalajara Proper, and New Biscay. Those of Mexico are Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Tlascala, Guaxaca, and Jacutan. Those of Guatemala are Chiapa, Guitamala Proper, Honduras, Costa Ricca, and Veragua. These districts have their respective capitals. Guadalajara is the capital of the province of that name, and is a large, populous, and neat city, containing spacious streets, several churches, a stately cathedral, and some convents for both sexes.

Mexico, the capital of the audience of Mexico, stands in the middle of a great lake of its own name, in latitude 19 deg. 40 min. about 170 miles west of the Gulph of Mexico. In point of regularity, it exceeds most cities in the universe; the streets being so strait, and exactly disposed, that from any part of the town

the whole is visible. The want of gates, walls, and artillery, together with the five great causeways leading to the city, renders Mexico extremely remarkable. All the buildings are convenient; but the public edifices, especially the churches and convents, are magnificent. Here are 29 cathedrals and churches, and 22 monasteries and nunneries. Besides these are several hospitals, which are richly endowed; and amongst the rest is one for young maids who are left orphans. The several trades have their respective streets: a very spacious one, that runs from the square, belongs to the goldsmiths. The shops are furnished with such a variety of brilliant articles, as to exhibit a lustre not to be paralleled in any part of the known world. The city is supplied with fresh water from a hill at three miles distance, to which an aqueduct, supported on strong arches, extends from the city.

Another place worthy of notice in this district is Acapulco, which stands in 17 deg. north latitude, on a bay of the South Sea, about 210 miles south-east from Mexico. The haven is large and commodious, and the entrance secured by a flat island running across, at each end of which is a deep channel, sufficiently broad for the greatest vessels. The only inconvenience is, that ships must enter by the sea wind, and go out by the land breeze, which seldom fail to succeed each other alternately; so that they are frequently blown off to sea after repeated attempts to make the harbour. The town is large, but ill built; and a part of it consists of warehouses. The climate here is unhealthy, and earthquakes very common. During the fair, after the arrival of the Lima and Manilla ships, the town is so excessively crowded, that great numbers are obliged to pitch tents in the neighbourhood for their accommodation. It is supposed that the Manilla galleon carries off from Acapulco at least 10,000,000 of dollars, in return for the goods she brings thither, and for the payment of the Spanish garrisons in the Philippine Isles.

In the province of Tlascala, in this district, is the city of La Vera Cruz, or Ulva, situated on the Gulph of Mexico, about 70 leagues from the capital. It is very strong, both by art and nature, being the great mart of all the Spanish trade in the North Sea, and has a safe commodious harbour. The air, however, is so unhealthy, that few Spaniards of distinction make their common residence in it.

Guatemala, the capital of the audience and province of that name, is situated on a beautiful plain, and is well built and inhabited. The cathedral and parish churches are elegant and sumptuous; and here are two fine monasteries, a nunnery, and an hospital.

In the province of Jacutan is the town of Campeachy. It has a fine appearance, being built of stone, and encompassed with a good wall, and has a strong citadel.

The present inhabitants of Mexico are a mixed people, composed of the native Indians and the Negroes, and the descendants of these are divided and distinguished by various names, as Creoles, Mestizes, Mestiches, Terceroons, and Quarteroons. The issue of an European and Negro is called a Mulatto: besides which there is a mixed breed of Negroes and Indians, which is generally deemed the lowest rank of the people.

With respect to the persons, dispositions, customs, and, indeed, general character of the Mexicans, or Free Indians, we are enabled, through favour of a correspondent, to present our readers with the following most genuine, as well as modern, account, that can possibly be given.

The Mexicans are, in common, of good stature, and well proportioned form. Their complexion is a deep olive. They have narrow foreheads, black eyes; firm, regular, black teeth; black, coarse, glossy hair; thin beards; and generally no hair on their legs, thighs, and arms. Some tribes look upon flat noses as a great beauty. Almost all the Mexicans paint their bodies with the figures of various birds and beasts, and anoint them with oil or fat. Some tribes are clothed; but the men of others go almost quite naked. The Mex-

cans, in general, have their noses, lips, ears, necks, and arms, adorned with pearls and other jewels, or trinkets, made of gold, silver, or some other metal.

There are very few deformed persons in Mexico, where it would be more difficult to find a single hump-backed, lame or squint-eyed man among a thousand of the natives, than among an hundred of any other nation. When their personal defects and excellencies are poised impartially, they can neither be called very beautiful, or the contrary, but seem to hold a middle place between the extremes. Their appearance neither engages or disgusts. Among the young women there are many highly attracting from the union of accomplishments personal and mental. Their senses in general are acute, but particularly so that of sight, which they enjoy to a great age unimpaired. Their constitutions are robust. They are free from many disorders common to the Spaniards; but to the epidemical diseases to which their country is occasionally subject, they fall the principal victims: with them these diseases begin, and with them they end. They are rarely affected with that nauseousness of breath, which is occasioned in other people by the corruption of the humours or indigestion. They become grey-headed and bald earlier than the Spaniards, and although most of them die of acute diseases, yet they sometimes attain to the age of one hundred years.

They are moderate in eating, but their passion for strong liquors is carried to the greatest excess, which exposes them to all the baneful impressions of disease, and is, undoubtedly, the principal cause of the havoc made among them by epidemical disorders. Their minds, like the children of Adam in general, are susceptible of cultivation, and experience has actually shewn, that their faculties are adapted to every kind of science.

The Mexicans are not violently transported by their passions: they are slow in their motions, and discover a wonderful tenacity and steadiness in those works which require long continued attention. They are patient of injury and hardship, and grateful for kindness shewn where they suspect no evil intention. By nature taciturn, serious and austere, they shew more anxiety to punish crimes than to reward virtues.

The principal characteristics of the Mexicans are generosity and disinterestedness: hence gold with them loses its value, and they seem to give, without reluctance, what has cost them the utmost labour to acquire.

The respect paid by parents to their children, and by the young to the old, seems to arise from congenial principles. Parents are fond of their children, but the affection which husbands bear to their wives is certainly less than that borne by wives to their husbands; and it is too common for the men to love their neighbours wives better than their own.

Their minds are so alternately affected by resolution and fear, that it is often difficult to determine which of them bears the sway. Dangers which proceed from natural causes they encounter with intrepidity, but the freedom of a Spaniard thrills them with horror.

To sum up the whole, the character of the Mexicans, like that of every other people in the world, is a mixture of good and bad; but the bad qualities may be corrected by a proper education, as hath been demolished by frequent experience.

As it is our desire by no means to omit any subject that can conduce to the entertainment of our readers, we shall present them with a description of the sacrifices of the people of that part of the world previous to their being conquered by the Spaniards.

The sacrifices of the ancient Mexicans were various, and horrid beyond expression. In general the victims suffered death by having their breasts opened; sometimes they were drowned in a lake; sometimes they died with hunger shut up in caverns of the mountains, and sometimes they fell in what was called the gladiatorian sacrifice.

The place for the performance of the common sacrifice was the temple, in the upper area of which stood the altar. The ministers were the priests, the chief of whom, on such occasions, was clothed in a red habit fringed with cotton. On his head he wore a crown of green and yellow feathers. The other ministers, which were five in number, were dressed in habits of the same make, but embroidered with black, and their bodies were dyed all over with the same colour. These barbarous ministers carried the victim naked to the upper area of the temple, and having pointed out to the bystanders the idol to whom the sacrifice was made, extended him upon the altar. Four priests held his legs and arms, and another kept his head firm with a wooden instrument made in the form of a coiled serpent, and put about his neck. The body of the victim lay stretched, the breast and belly being raised up and totally prevented from moving. The inhuman chief priest then approached, and with a cutting knife made of flint dexterously opened the breast, and tore out the heart, which, while yet palpitating, he offered to the sun, and afterwards threw it at the feet of the idol: he then took it up and burnt it, and the ashes were preserved as a precious relic. If the idol was of large size and hollow form, it was customary to introduce the heart of the victim into its mouth with a golden spoon. It was usual also to anoint the lips of the idol, and the cornices of the door of the temple, with the blood of the victim. If the victim was a prisoner of war they severed the head from the body, to preserve the skull. The body was carried by the officer, or soldier, to whom the prisoner had belonged, to his house, to be boiled and dressed for the entertainment of his friends. If he was not a prisoner of war, but a slave purchased for sacrifice, the proprietor carried off the body from the altar for the same purpose. They eat only the legs, thighs and arms, burning the rest, or preserving it for food for wild beasts and birds of prey. Some sects among them having slain the victim, tore the body in pieces, which they sold at market. Others sacrificed men to their gods, women to their goddesses, and children to the inferior deities. This was the most common mode of sacrifice: there were others less frequent; such as putting the victims to death by fire, drowning children of both sexes in the lake, shutting them up in a cavern, and suffering them to perish with fear and hunger.

The principal sacrifice among the ancient Mexicans was that called by the Spaniards the Gladian. This was an honourable death, and only prisoners distinguished by their valour were permitted to die by it. The prisoner was placed on a stone in a conspicuous part of the city, armed with a shield and a short sword, and tied by one foot. A Mexican officer, or soldier, better armed, mounted the stone to combat with him. If the prisoner was vanquished he was carried by a priest, dead or alive, to the altar of the common sacrifices, where his breast was opened, and his heart taken out, while the victor was applauded and rewarded with some military honour. If the prisoner conquered six different combatants, who successively engaged him, he was granted his life, his liberty, and dismissed with honour to his native country.

HISTORY and CONQUEST of MEXICO.

THE great and extensive empire of Mexico was under the sole government of its own monarchs, till the Spaniards, under the command of Fernando Cortez, invaded and conquered it. This expedition was undertaken with only 508 foot, 16 troopers and 108 seamen. Cortez with his forces landed on the coast of the bay of Campeachy, and having dispersed the natives with his artillery, marched to the city of Tobaeco, which he seized upon. The next day the Indians assembled an army of 40,000 men, with which they attacked the Spaniards; but Cortez, at the head of the horse, attacking them in the flank, they retired.

The day after the battle the cacique, or prince, sent a solemn embassy to Cortez, to implore peace, attended with a present of such fruits and provisions as his country afforded, together with jewels, plumes and painted cotton linen, and whatever he thought most acceptable to the conquerors. The ambassadors approached Cortez as they used to do their gods, with golden pads or censers, in which they burnt aromatic gums, and other incense: the cacique afterwards came in person, and made his submission, bringing him 20 beautiful Indian virgins, which he made Cortez a present of. One of these, whom the general afterwards caused to be baptized by the name of Donna Marina, served him, during the whole expedition, in the double capacity of concubine and interpreter; for she was a native of Mexico, a female of ready wit, and understood the customs of the country, and the language perfectly well; and indeed to her merit and address the Spaniards ascribe the success of their arms in a great measure. When the cacique of Tobasco came to make his submission, Cortez let him know, that he came from a powerful prince; and that his principal view was to make them all happy in this world and the next, by making them subjects of the same sovereign, and converting them to the true religion. To this the frightened cacique answered, that he and his people should think themselves happy in obeying a king, whose power and greatness appeared to such advantage in the valour of his subjects: but as to the point of religion, he gave very little hopes of their conversion.

Cortez, being about to advance still farther with his fleet on the Mexican coast, was under the greatest concern that he must leave those people before he had fully instructed them in the Catholic religion; and on Palm-Sunday, the day he appointed to embark his troops, he first caused an altar to be erected in the open field, where he celebrated high mass in the presence of the Indians, and all his troops marched in their ranks to the altar, with boughs or palms in their hands, to celebrate that festival: the procession seemed to excite in the natives the utmost awe and reverence, insomuch that some of them cried out, "This must be a great God, that such brave men adore." Cortez sailed to the port of St. John de Ulva, where he landed, and Donna Marina acted as interpreter. When the general was informed that Montezuma, the emperor of Mexico, had sent to know the reason of the Spaniards invading his country, he answered ambiguously, but still preserved his design of penetrating into the country. Montezuma, in all his messages, tried to prevent the Spaniards from coming to Mexico, and Cortez as inflexibly persisted in that intent.

Cortez foresaw that the Mexicans would not be able to prevent his approaching Mexico, especially as he was joined, about this time, by a cacique, or prince of the country, named Zempoala, who offered to enter into an alliance with Cortez against Montezuma, whom he represented as a cruel tyrant and oppressor.

The cacique furnished him with 400 men to carry his baggage, and others to draw his artillery, there not being any beasts in this part of the country fit to draw carriages; but every thing of this kind was done by the strength of men.

The general continuing his march by the sea-coast to Vera Cruz, was joined there by about 30 caciques from the mountains, who reinforced his troops with 100,000 men; and some parties of Europeans hearing of the success of Cortez also voluntarily followed him thither, and joined his troops: whereupon he became so confident of his success, that he burnt all his ships, and having fortified Vera Cruz, in which he left a small garrison, he began his march directly for the city of Mexico, being joined by the people of Tlascala, a country of great extent, who offered to become subjects of the king of Spain; at which Montezuma was so alarmed, that he offered to pay the Spaniards an annual tribute, amounting to one half of his revenues;

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and when he found it in vain to oppose the general's march, he thought fit to give him an invitation to his capital; but Cortez, who was determined to have the plunder of the capital city, pretended that the Mexicans were not sincere in their invitation, but had entered into a conspiracy to surprize the Spaniards; when they had drawn them into an ambuscade, and massacre them; and, therefore, immediately began hostilities, and cut to pieces some thousands of Montezuma's subjects.

After this, the Spaniards, continuing their march, were attended by several other caciques and lords of the country, who complained of the intolerable oppressions of Montezuma; telling Cortez that they looked upon him as their deliverer, sent from heaven to restrain and punish the injustice and cruelty of tyrants: to whom he promised his protection, and drawing near to Mexico, in order to strike the greater terror into the natives, he ordered his artillery and small arms to be discharged; and caused several Indians to be shot, that approached too near his quarters, while he lay encamped at Amemeca, on the borders of the Mexican lake.

Here prince Cacumatzin, the nephew of Montezuma, attended by the Mexican nobility, came to the general, and bid him welcome; assuring him that he would meet with a very kind and honourable reception from the emperor; but intimated, that there having been lately a great scarcity of provisions in the city of Mexico, occasioned by unseasonable weather, they could not accommodate them as they desired; and, therefore, entreated he would defer his entrance into that capital, if he did not think fit entirely to decline going thither. But Cortez appearing determined to advance, the prince seemed to acquiesce; and the preparations for the reception of the Spaniards were continued.

Cortez being arrived at Quitlavaca, a city situated on an island in the great lake, five or six leagues from Mexico, had some apprehensions that the Mexicans would break down the causeway, and remove the bridges on it; which would very much have embarrassed him, because he could neither have advanced or retired in that case, especially with his horse and artillery. But the cacique of Quitlavaca, who appeared to be a friend of the Spaniards, very much encouraged the general, telling him, he had nothing to fear; that the prodigies in the heavens, the answers of the oracles, and the fame of the great actions and surprizing arms of the Spaniards, had perfectly dispirited their emperor, and disposed him to submit to whatever the general should impose on him.

Soon after Cortez entered Mexico, at the head of 450 Spaniards, and 6000 Tlascalans; when they were met by Montezuma himself, who was brought in a chair of beaten gold, on the shoulders of his favourite courtiers.

The conference between the emperor and the general was short, their speeches were suitable to the occasion, and the emperor commanded one of the princes, his relation, to conduct the general to the palace assigned for his residence, and then returned to his own palace.

It was about noon that the Spaniards were brought to the royal house appointed for their reception, which was so spacious, as to contain all the Europeans and their auxiliaries: it had thick stone walls, flanked with towers: the roof of the palace was flat, and defended by battlements and breast-work; insomuch, that when the general had planted his artillery, and placed his guards, it had very much the appearance of a fortress.

Hither Montezuma came the same evening, and was received by Cortez in the principal square of the palace; and that monarch having entered the room of state, and seated himself, ordered a chair for Cortez, and a signal was made for his courtiers to retire to the wall: whereupon the Spanish officers did the same; and Cortez being about to begin his speech by his interpreters, Montezuma prevented him, by speaking as follows;

"Illustrious and valiant stranger! Before you disclose the important message the great monarch you

came

came from has given you in command, it is necessary some allowance be made for what fame has reported of us on either side. You may have been informed by some, that I am one of the immortal gods; that my wealth is immensely great, and my palaces covered with gold: and on the other hand, you may have heard that I am tyrannical, proud and cruel. But both the one and the other have equally imposed upon you: you see I am a mortal of the same species with other men; and though my riches are considerable, my vassals make them much more than they are; and you find that the walls of my palaces are nothing more than plain lime and stone. In like manner, no doubt, has the severity of my government been magnified: but suspend your judgment of the whole, till you have an opportunity of informing yourself concerning it; and you will find that what my rebellious subjects call oppression, is nothing more than the necessary execution of justice.

"After the same manner have your actions been represented to us: some speak of you as gods; affirming that the wild beasts obey you: that you grasp the thunder in your hands, and command the elements, while others assure me, you are wicked, revengeful, proud, and transported with an insatiable thirst after the gold our country produces.

"I am now sensible ye are of the same composition and form as other men, and distinguished from us only by accidents which the difference of countries occasions.

These beasts (horses) that obey you are, probably, a large species of deer, that you have tamed and bred up in such imperfect knowledge as may be attained by animals: your arms are made of a metal, indeed, unknown to us, and the fire you discharge from them, with such an astonishing sound, may be some secret taught by your magicians. As to your actions, my ambassadors and servants inform me, that you are pious, courteous, and governed by reason: that you bear hardships with patience and cheerfulness, and are rather liberal than covetous; so that we must, on both sides, lay aside our prejudices and prepossession, and rely only on what our eyes and experience teach us."

To this the general answered, "That it was true, various were the reports they had heard: some endeavoured to defame and asperse him, while others adored him. But the Spaniards, who were endowed with a penetrating spirit, easily saw through the different colours of discourse, and the deceit of the heart; that they neither gave credit to his rebellious subjects, or those that flattered him; but came in his presence, assured that he was a great prince, and a friend to reason; but very well satisfied, however, that he was a mortal, as they themselves were: that the beasts which obeyed him were not deer, but fierce and generous animals, inclined to war, and seemed to aspire after the same glory as their masters. That their fire-arms were, indeed, the effect of human industry, and owed nothing to the skill of the magician, whose arts were abominated by the Spaniards."

Having thus given some answer to the emperor's speech, Cortez proceeded to inform him, "That he came ambassador from the most potent monarch under the sun, to desire his friendship and alliance: that there might be a communication and intercourse between their respective dominions; and by that means, the Christians might have an opportunity of convincing them of their errors, and, instead of blocks of wood, (the works of mens hands) instruct them to worship and adore the true God, the Creator of the whole universe. That this was the first and principal thing the king his master commanded him to insist on, as the most likely means of establishing a lasting amity; that, being united in principles of religion, their alliance might become indissoluble."

Montezuma replied, that "he accepted the alliance proposed by the king of Spain; but as to the overture concerning religion, he totally objected to it;" and making Cortez a rich present, returned to his palace.

Cortez continued, for some time, very intimate with Montezuma, often visiting the Mexican court; and that monarch frequently came to the Spanish quarters, making presents to the general, and to his officers and soldiers, exhibiting shews and entertainments for their diversion. The Mexicans still treated the Spaniards with a respect that favoured of great humility and condescension. Montezuma spoke of their king with the greatest veneration. His nobility paid a profound respect to the Spanish officers, and the people bowed the knee to the meanest Spanish soldier. But an accident happened, which very much lessened the esteem, or rather dread, the Mexicans at first entertained of these foreigners.

One of the emperor's generals, levying the annual tax imposed on the vassal princes in that part of the country, which lay in the neighbourhood of the Spanish garrison of Vera Cruz, these caciques, who had thrown off their subjection to the Mexican empire, and entered into an alliance with the Spaniards, applied themselves to John de Escalante, governor of Vera Cruz, for protection; who thereupon marched out of that fortress, with 40 Spaniards, and 3 or 4000 confederate Indians, to their assistance; and though he had the good fortune to defeat the Mexican general, yet one of the Spaniards was killed, and his head sent up to the court; and the governor, with five or six more of his garrison, were mortally wounded. This news being brought to Cortez, gave him great uneasiness; and the more, because he was informed, by the confederate Indians, that the Mexicans were consulting how to drive him out of their territories, which they did not apprehend to be impracticable since the engagement near Vera Cruz.

The Spanish general, therefore, finding it impossible to maintain his authority among the Indians any longer, without entering on some action that might give them fresh cause of astonishment, and recover that reputation they seemed to have lost by that unfortunate accident, resolved to seize the person of Montezuma, and bring him prisoner to his quarters; and accordingly, at an hour when the Spaniards were used to pay their court to that prince, Cortez, having given orders for his men to arm themselves without noise, and possess themselves of all the avenues leading to the palace, in small parties, that no notice might be taken of it, went to the Mexican court, attended by several of his officers, and 30 soldiers, whose resolution he could rely on, and being admitted to the emperor's presence, he complained of the violation of the peace between them, by one of the Mexican generals falling upon his confederates, and afterwards killing a Spaniard he had taken in cold blood. To which Montezuma answered, "That if any thing of that nature had been done, it was without his orders; and he was ready to make satisfaction for any injury that might have been done undesignedly, either to the Spaniards or their allies." But Cortez gave him to understand, that nothing would satisfy them but his surrendering himself into their hands, and residing with them in the palace assigned to the Spaniards for their quarters.

Montezuma at first seemed astonished at the insolent demand, and remained for some time silent; but recovering from his surprize, he said, that princes of his rank were not accustomed to yield themselves up to a prison; nor would his subjects permit this, even if he should forget his dignity so far. Cortez answered, "If he would go along with them voluntarily, they were not afraid of any opposition his subjects should make; and they would treat him with all the regard due to his dignity: he might continue to exercise his authority as formerly, and no restraint should be put on his actions; only, for their security, he insisted that the emperor should reside amongst them." Montezuma, still refusing to put himself into their hands, was given to understand, that if he would not, they would carry him off by force, or murder him if they were opposed; whereupon he submitted to do what he found it was impossible to avoid; and gave orders to his officers to prepare for

for his removal to the Spanish quarters, whither he went in the usual state, and voluntarily, to all appearance, except that he was attended by a company of Spaniards, who surrounded his chair.

Montezuma, as must be easily supposed, was rendered very miserable by this indignity; and his servants, lamenting their emperor's hard fate, threw themselves at his feet, endeavouring to ease him of the weight of his fetters; and though, when he recovered from his first amazement, he began to express some impatience, yet, correcting himself, he acquiesced in his misfortunes, and waited the event, not without apprehensions that there was a design against his life: but Cortez having seen his plan performed, by which he found he had struck such a terror into the Mexicans, that little was to be feared from them, he returned to Montezuma's apartment, and ordered his fetters to be taken off; and, as some writers relate, he fell on his knees, and took them off with his own hands; for which favour the emperor embraced and thanked him. But what is still more difficult to be believed, they assure us, that Cortez gave the emperor leave to return to his palace, and that he refused the offer out of regard to the Spaniards; telling them, he knew very well that as soon as he was put out of their power, his subjects would press him to take up arms against them, to revenge the wrongs he had suffered: nay, the Spanish historians positively affirm, that, notwithstanding all the injuries and indignities they had offered to Montezuma, he expressed a more than ordinary friendship and regard for them, preferring their interest to that of his own subjects.

De Solis, the Spanish historian, says, that Cortez gave Montezuma leave to go whither he pleased, which he seems to contradict in a very few lines afterwards: for he tells us, when that prince only desired to perform his devotions in one of his temples, it was granted upon certain conditions, namely, that he should give his royal word to return to the Spanish quarters again, and from that day abolish human sacrifices; and we make no doubt but they insisted on a third, viz. that he should take a guard of Spaniards with him; for they acknowledge that a body of Spaniards actually attended him to the temple, which they could do with no other view than that of securing their prisoner: though De Solis says, indeed, it was at the request of Montezuma, that they went with him: nor did he ever go abroad without a Spanish guard, or without asking leave of Cortez; or ever lay one night out of their quarters, by their own confession; which they would have us ascribe purely to choice, and his affection to the Spaniards, who had put such indignities upon him. They add, that Cortez was now become his prime minister; that all posts of honour or profit were disposed of by him and his principal officers, who were courted by the Mexican nobility, when they saw that no places or preferments could be had but by their interest; which possibly might be true; but surely it is much more probable that Montezuma was influenced more by his fears than his affection for the Spaniards. And we may observe from hence, that, with all these advantages, Cortez, and his Spaniards, might have established their power upon such a foundation, as could not easily have been overthrown, without such a deluge of blood as they spilt afterwards, if Cortez had been as able a politician as he was a soldier; or if his benevolence and humanity had exceeded his cruelty and avarice.

He seems to have left scarce any means untried for his security and establishment but the principal, namely, gaining the affection of the Indians, and winning them over to his party, as well as to the Christian religion, by acts of generosity and beneficence. He was so careful of himself, that he caused some brigantines to be built on the lake of Mexico, whereby he entirely commanded the lake, and the causeways leading to the city; and at the same time he increased his reputation with the Mexicans by the artful management of those vessels; for the Indians were, at this time, ignorant of the use of sails and rudders.

Don Diego Velasques, governor of Cuba, being informed that Cortez had met with great success in Mexico, and was endeavouring to render himself independent of him, declared him a rebel, and sent Pamphilio de Narvaez, with 800 men, to reduce him, and take upon him the command of the Spanish forces in Mexico. Whereupon Cortez leaving a garrison in the city of Mexico, and confining Montezuma there, marched to meet Narvaez his rival, surprised him in the night-time, made him prisoner, and so corrupted the officers of the troops that came over with Narvaez, by the rich presents he made them, that they agreed to join Cortez. Thus reinforced, he returned to the city of Mexico again; and now imagining himself powerful enough to subdue that empire by force, without courting Montezuma or his subjects, he treated that monarch with great contempt. But some of the Spanish historians observe, that in this he committed a very great error: for had the general, on his returning in triumph with such an addition of forces, entered into a treaty with that emperor and his nobility, they would have yielded to almost any terms; and he might have gained the dominion of that empire, for the king of Spain, his master, without any bloodshed. But he was too much elated with success to think of pacific measures. On the contrary, he resolved to give the Mexicans all manner of provocations, and even rendered them desperate, that he might have a colour to destroy them, and seize all their possessions, whether lands or treasure. He found a garrison of 80 Spaniards able to repel the whole force of Mexico; and he did not doubt, now he saw himself at the head of 1100 Spanish horse and foot, with a multitude of confederate Indians, he should be able, by force, to reduce the Mexicans, and make slaves of them. But he was near paying very dear for his presumption; for sending out a detachment of 400 Spaniards and confederate Indians in search of the enemy, who were retired to the farthest part of the city, they were surrounded, and in danger of having their retreat cut off; and he himself, with the rest of his troops, very narrowly escaped being starved, or cut in pieces; for the Mexicans, rendered brave by their despair, were not afraid to attack Cortez in his quarters, though defended by a numerous garrison, and a train of artillery; and when, at any time, he made a sally, he found intrenchments in the streets, and the bridges broken down, which rendered his cavalry, in a manner, useless; and though he usually came off victorious, he found he had committed a very great error in shutting himself up in Mexico, from whence it was almost impossible to make his retreat, and where he found it impracticable to fetch in provisions; the enemy being masters of all the causeways that lead to the town, and of all the boats upon the lake; so that if his people were not destroyed by the continual attacks of the enemy, they must certainly, in a short time, be reduced by famine.

In this distress Cortez thought fit to endeavour a reconciliation with Montezuma, and make use of the authority he still retained among his subjects, to induce them to lay down their arms, and permit the Spaniards to march out of Mexico, which, it was presumed, they would readily have come into, that they might get rid of a people so much dreaded, as well as hated, by them. Accordingly, a parley being proposed and agreed to, Montezuma appeared on the battlements of the palace, and some of the Mexican nobility advancing to hear what overtures he would make them, the Spaniards tell us, their emperor made a speech to his subjects, wherein he greatly reprimanded them for taking up arms without his leave, though it was with an intention to obtain the liberty of their prince, declaring that he was, in reality, under no manner of restraint, but remained with the Spaniards from choice; that he thought himself obliged to shew the Spaniards this favour, on account of the respect they had always paid him, and out of duty to the prince that had sent them; that their embassy being dispatched, he was about to dismiss

dismiss these foreigners from his court, and desired his subjects would lay down their arms, and not interrupt their march, and he should readily pardon their having taken up arms, or to that effect.

The Mexicans paid little regard to this speech. Whatever their emperor's words were, they knew they were put into his mouth by the Spaniards, whose prisoner he was, and tended only to procure them a safe retreat; and they were sensible, if they lost the advantage they had, they must never expect such another opportunity of getting rid of these unwelcome guests. They had them now cooped up in this fortress, where no relief could be brought them, and from whence it was scarce possible for them to retreat, if the Mexicans broke down the bridges and causeways upon the lake, and made such ditches and trenches in the streets, as the Spaniards themselves had taught them; but foresaw, if ever their enemies got over the lake again, they might not only receive fresh reinforcements from Spain and their Indian allies, but they must engage them to great disadvantage in their open country, having nothing to oppose their horse and artillery. The Mexicans resolved, therefore, not to consent to a cessation of arms, but rejected the overture with disdain, as being framed only to give their mortal enemies an opportunity of escaping out of their hands, and reinforcing themselves to the destruction of their country; and they were so enraged at the overture, that they shot at their emperor for making it to them, and mortally wounded him.

Cortez, finding the Mexicans were not to be amused with insidious proposals, from what hand soever they came, that his provisions were almost spent, and that it would be impracticable to make his retreat in the day-time, resolved to attempt it in the dark night. Having divided the treasure, therefore, amongst his men, with which they were pretty well loaded, for it amounted to an immense sum, he issued out of his quarters at midnight, the weather being extremely tempestuous, whereby his march was for some time concealed; but he had not advanced a mile upon the causeway, before he found himself attacked on every side by the Mexicans, both by land and water, the lake being filled with their canoes or boats; and as they had broke down the bridges, and cut the causeways through in several places, the Spaniards were in great danger of being entirely cut off. Cortez, indeed, had foreseen this, and provided a portable bridge to pass the breaches in the causeway, which was of great use to him in several places: but the Indians found means to destroy this bridge before they were all passed over, and their rear-guard, consisting of 2 or 300 Spaniards, and 1000 confederate Indians, were cut in pieces. They also lost their artillery, prisoners, baggage, and treasure, with 46 horses. Cortez, however, with the best part of his force, broke through the Indians, and escaped to the other side of the lake. Some impute this loss to the avarice of his soldiers, who were so loaded with gold and silver, that they could scarce make use of their arms; and possibly there may be some truth in it; but we believe every one who considers his circumstances, must be of opinion, that he was very fortunate in escaping so well. Had the enemy provided a body of forces to oppose him on the further side of the lake, he must inevitably have perished; but they did not expect his falling out so suddenly, especially in that tempestuous season, and were not, therefore, provided to attack him.

De Solis, the historian, endeavours to give us a particular account of this action, admires the valour and conduct of Cortez and his officers, and informs us how every one distinguished himself in this memorable retreat. He proceeds to inform us, that they arrived just as it was day-light on firm land, and thought themselves very happy that there was no army to oppose them there, and that they were pursued no further, till they had time to form and recover themselves from their consternation.

This good fortune, it seems, was owing to the compassion the Mexicans expressed for the two sons of Montezuma, and several princes of the royal blood, whom they found slaughtered among the Spaniards, when the day-light appeared. The Mexicans relate that Montezuma himself was of this number; and that the Spaniards murdered both him and his sons, when they found they could not carry them off. The Spaniards, on the other hand, say, that Montezuma was killed before by the arrows of the Mexicans; and that the princes, also, were accidentally killed in the engagement while it was dark, and they could not distinguish friends from foes. But however that was, it is agreed the princes were found dead, pierced through with many wounds; and the Mexicans deferred the pursuit of the Spaniards, to solemnize the obsequies of those two princes, or of Montezuma himself. To which piece of piety Cortez and the Spaniards, who were left alive, in a great measure, owed their safety.

The Spaniards having halted some time to refresh themselves, and take care of their wounded men, continued their march towards Tlascala, the country of their faithful allies and confederates: but they had not advanced many leagues before they were again overtaken, and attacked by the Mexicans, at a time when they were so fatigued and harrassed, that had not Cortez taken possession of a temple, that very fortunately lay in his way, he would have found it difficult to have repulsed the enemy. But the Mexicans, finding they could make no impression on the Spaniards, as they lay intrenched within those walls, thought fit to sound a retreat. However, Cortez apprehending he should be distressed here for want of provisions, began his march again at midnight, with great silence, in hopes to have got the start of the enemy so far, that he should have reached the Tlascalan territories before they could have overtaken him; but, to his great surprize, being arrived on the top of a very high mountain, he discovered the whole forces of the Mexicans, consisting of 200,000 men, drawn up in battalia in the valley of Otumba, through which it was necessary to pass, in his way to Tlascala; whereupon Cortez made only this short speech to his officers, "We must either die or conquer;" and finding an uncommon ardour in his soldiers to engage, he immediately led them on. The fight was, for some time, bloody and obstinate; and Cortez, apprehending his men would be wearied out by the continual supplies of fresh forces, which the Indians poured in upon him, gave a surprising turn to the battle, by attacking the imperial standard, carried by the Mexican general, who was surrounded by the nobility; for having routed them, killed the general, and taken the standard, the rest of their troops turned their backs and fled, and were pursued with incredible slaughter by the Spaniards and their Indian allies, who made themselves ample amends with the spoils of the enemy, for the treasure they lost on retiring from the city of Mexico.

Cortez now found it necessary to cultivate a good understanding with the caciques and princes of the country, and to take their troops into his service; and made himself master of such posts as might be of most advantage to him in reducing the city of Mexico; and as he could not approach it by land, but on the causeways, he built 13 brigantines and sloops, whereby he became master of the navigation of the lake, and then attacked the town by water as well as on the land side, having about 1000 Spaniards in his army, and 200,000 Indian allies. He took the city by storm on the 13th of August, 1521.

One hundred thousand Mexicans perished in defence of the city; and this conquest was attended with the submission of most of the neighbouring provinces, who consented to acknowledge themselves subjects to the king of Spain, (the then emperor Charles V.)

The city of Mexico being thus reduced, Cortez distributed the plunder among his soldiers, reserving only a fifth, with the most remarkable curiosities, for the king.

THE WEST INDIES.
Exhibiting the
English French Spanish Dutch & Danish
SETTLEMENTS
With the Adjacent Parts of North & South
AMERICA.
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

References to the Caribbee Islands according to the Treaty of Peace 1763

E	English
F	French
S	Spanish
D	Dutch
Da	Danish

Geographical Labels:
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
CARIBBEAN SEA
FLORIDA
BAHAMAS
ISLANDS
VIRGIN ISLES
WINDWARD ISLANDS
LEEWARD ISLANDS
HISPANIOLA OR S. DOMINGO
JAMAICA
PORTO RICO
ANTILLA
VENUEZUELA
CARACAS
NORTH AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA

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king, which he sent to Spain by some of his principal officers, together with an account of his conquest, and the state of that country, desiring his majesty would confirm the magistrates he had appointed to govern it, with the grants of the conquered lands. and Indian slaves he had made, to his soldiers. Among the rich jewels Cortez sent to the emperor, it is said, there was a fine emerald, of a pyramidal form, as large as the palm of a man's hand at the biggest end; a noble set of gold and silver vessels; several things cast in gold and silver, viz. beasts, birds, fishes, fruits, and flowers; bracelets, rings, pendants, and other ornamental pieces of plate and jewels; some of their idols, cotton vestments of their priests, furs, and feathers of various colours.

The general requested his Imperial Majesty to send over persons qualified to survey the country, that it might be improved to the best advantage, with the priests and missionaries for the conversion of the people; as also cattle, with seeds and plants to improve the lands: but, it is said, he provided particularly against the sending over physicians or lawyers. What could have been his reason against sending physicians is not easy to be conceived; but he had certainly all the reason in the world to desire that neither laws or lawyers should be admitted there, having determined to treat the natives as slaves, and seize both their persons and possessions, and, indeed, to usurp an arbitrary dominion over both Spaniards and Indians in the New World.

C H A P. VII.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN THE WEST INDIES AND AMERICA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE WEST-INDIES.

IN the extensive gulph between the two continents of America, lie a great number of islands, called by the general appellation of the West Indies. They are distinguished by seamen into the Windward and Leeward Islands, merely with regard to their situation either to the east or west. Some geographers distinguish them by the names of Great and Little Antilles, while others call them the Caribees, from their first inhabitants. They lie in a semicircular form, stretching from the coast of Florida to the main continent of South America, near the river Oroonoko.

The climate of all the West-India Islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations, and qualities of the lands themselves, produce. As they lie within the tropics, they are continually subject to an extreme of heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to follow their necessary occupations even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from its center, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once. By the same remarkable providence in the disposing of things, it is, that, when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams, and, dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which generally continues from the beginning of January till the latter end of May. These rains are rather floods of water poured from the clouds with vast impetuosity: the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed; and, in a short time, all the low country is under water. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their sources within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season. But so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be, for that reason, uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers in the world have their course within its limits; and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniencies of the climate in several places.

The only distinction of seasons in the West Indies arises from the rains. The trees are green the whole year round. They have no cold, no frost, no snow, and seldom any hail; but when storms of that kind happen, they are very violent, and the hail-stones are exceeding large and heavy.

It is in the rainy season that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which the inhabitants of these islands are subject. One of these hurricanes destroys, at one stroke, the labours of many years, and baffles all the endeavours of the planter. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see, as the prelude to the ensuing havock, whole fields of sugar canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble. Their windmills are swept away in a moment. Their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces. Their houses are no protection, the roofs being torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which rises five feet in an hour, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes on at the full moon, the following signs precede it. That day you will see the sky very turbulent; you will observe the sun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of burs; the north-west sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady easterly stream, and shifts about to the west, from whence it sometimes blows, with intermissions, violently and irregularly, for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great bur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the approach of an hurricane.

Sugar, the grand staple commodity of the West-Indies, was not known to the Greeks and Romans; though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it: but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into use as a luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought hither by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but however that may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best, sugar, which comes to market in this part of the world. The juice within

the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved very nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland and other parts, besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. The tops of the cane, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

When things are well managed, the rum and molasses are computed to pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear again. However, the expences of a plantation in the West Indies are, doubtless, very great, and the profits, at the first view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000*l*. Nor is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleness and luxury; at all times he must keep a watchful eye on his overseers, and even oversee himself occasionally. But at the boiling season, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a constant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and so many fierce furnaces: add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes and bad seasons; and then consider when the sugars are in the casks, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. Notwithstanding these considerations, there are no parts in the world, in which great fortunes are got in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provide against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than, perhaps, any other commodity in the world.

The larger plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has a good salary, with overseers under him in proportion to the extent of the plantation: some plantations have a surgeon, at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the lands, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent, and keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week (Saturday and Sunday) to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork per day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket, the whole not exceeding 40*s*. a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12*l*. The price of men negroes, on their first arrival, is from 33 to 36*l*. women and grown boys about 50*s*. less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring about 40*l*. on an average one with another, and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

Traders here make a very large profit upon all they sell, but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or less as venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost, or under. Those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement.

Previous to our description of the British Islands in America, we shall present our readers with the following Table of the

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.				
Islands.	Leng.	Bred.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
Jamaica	140	60	Kingston	Great Britain
Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto
St. Christopher	20	7	Basse-terre	Ditto
Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
Nevis and Montserrat	Each of these is 18 miles in circumf.		Charles-Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
Anguilla	30	18		Ditto
Dominica	28	13		Ditto
St. Vincent	24	18	Kingston	Ditto
Granada	30	15	St. George's	Ditto
Tobago	32	9		France
Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
Hispaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Do. & Fran.
Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain
Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
Margarieta	40	24		Ditto
Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France
Guadaloupe	45	38	Basse-terre	Ditto
St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto
St. Bartholomew, Desceada, and Maragalante	All of them inconsiderable.			Ditto Ditto Ditto
St. Eustatia	29	circ	The Bay	Holland
Curassao	30	10		Ditto
St. Thomas	15	circ		Denmark
St. Croix	30	10	Basse-End	Ditto

AMERICAN ISLANDS.				
Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
Cape Breton	100	80	Louisbourg	Ditto
St. John's	60	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
The Bermudas	20,000 acres		St. George	Ditto
The Bahamas	very numer.		Nassau	Ditto
Falklands				
Juan Fernandes	14	6	Uninhabited	
Fuera			Ditto	
Chiloe	112	21	Castro	

J A M A I C A.

JAMAICA, which is the largest of the British West Indian islands, was first discovered by the great Columbus in the year 1694, but at that time he did not attempt to make any settlement there. Some years after, in his fourth expedition, he was cast ashore here by a storm; the loss of his ships putting it out of his power to get away, he implored the humanity of the savages, and received from them all the help of a natural compassion: but these people, who planted only for their own necessities, were tired with maintaining strangers who put them in danger of starving by a famine, and therefore removed themselves intently from the neighbourhood. The Spaniards no longer kept any measure with the Indians, and soon grew to mutinous as to take up arms against their commander. Columbus, forced to yield to their threats to get out of a desperate situation, took the advantage of one of those appearances of nature, where a man of genius sometimes finds a resource, pardonable through necessity. His astronomical knowledge informed him that there would soon be an eclipse of the moon; and he

he desired all the caciques to assemble together to hear from him some things very important to their safety. When he was in the midst of them, after having reproached them for their cruelty with which they suffered him and his companions to perish, "To punish you for it" said he with an air of great importance, "the God whom I adore is going to inflict on you one of his most terrible strokes: this evening you will see the moon redden, grow dark, and refuse you light: this is only the prelude of your misfortunes, if you persist in refusing to give me provisions." Columbus had hardly ceased speaking, when his prediction was accomplished: the fright was general among the savages: they thought themselves going to be destroyed, begged for mercy, and promised every thing. He then declared to them, that heaven, touched with their repentance, had appeased its wrath, and that nature was going to resume its course. After this moment provisions arrived from all parts, and Columbus had every thing he could wish for till his departure.

The court of Spain had granted the property of Jamaica to Columbus, who gave it the preference to all other parts, on account of its populousness and happy situation: he called it the Sicily of the Indies. Don Diego his son was the first governor of it, with the title of duke de la Vega, from the city of St. Jago de la Vega, founded by him, and which became its capital. Don Diego had caused about 100 Indians to go over from St. Domingo, under the conduct of Juan d'Esquimel; others soon followed them, but in a few years after they all deserted the island.

The Spaniards had built several other cities here, but all their settlements, erected on the dead remains of the Indians, fell to decay as fast as the depopulation increased; and as the ravagers were convinced the island produced no gold, they were soon reduced to that of St. Jago de la Vega, which then consisted of 1100 houses, four churches, and an abbey. The inhabitants of this city, plunged into that indolence which follows tyranny after devastation, contented themselves to live on some plantations, whose overplus they sold to the ships which passed by their coasts. The whole people of the island, collected into a small territory which nourished this useless race of destroyers, was confined to 1500 slaves commanded by their tyrants; when the English coming at last to attack their capital, made themselves masters of it, and settled there in 1655.

At first their new colony had only 3000 inhabitants, part of that fanatical militia that had fought and triumphed under the rebellious standard of Cromwell. They were soon joined by a number of royalists, who went to America to meet with some alleviation for their defeat, and to enjoy the calm of peace. The spirit of division which had so long and so cruelly rent the two parties in Europe, followed them beyond the seas; there was enough to renew in the New World the scenes of horror and bloodshed so often repeated in the Old. But admiral Penn and colonel Venables, after conquering Jamaica, had left the command to one of the wisest and bravest men, who by good luck was the senior officer: it was D'Oyley, a friend to the Stuarts. Cromwell twice substituted some of his party in his place, and both times their deaths restored D'Oyley to the head of affairs. His manner of ruling was quite military: he had to keep in order and govern an infant colony entirely composed of soldiers, and to prevent or repel the invasions of the Spaniards, who might try to recover what they had just lost. But when Charles the Second was restored to the throne, a civil government was established at Jamaica, formed, like those in the other islands, after the model of the mother-country; but the first attempts were confined to compiling, without any methods, some provisional regulations for the police, justice, and finances. It was not till 1682 that the body of the laws was formed, by which the island is at present governed.

This colony was so increased after the Reformation,

that it contained 18,000 persons, who had almost no other trade but their depredations on the Spaniards. Sir Thomas Modiford, a rich planter of Barbadoes, was then governor, who came to Jamaica to increase his possessions: he introduced into this island the art of making sugar, and of planting cocoa trees; and erected salt works. His attention to encourage culture and industry could not make the people of Jamaica give up their maritime expeditions; adventurers of all kinds increased the croud of these romantic pirates, who often deserved the appellation of heroes, known by the name of Free-booters and Buccaneers: they infested the whole West Indian Sea, and laid waste all the coasts of the New World. The plunder of Mexico and Peru was always carried to Jamaica, both by the natives and strangers: they found in this island a greater felicity, received more protection and liberty than elsewhere, both to disembark and to spend, at their own pleasure, the booty they had acquired in their courses. There the extravagance of their debaucheries soon plunged them into distress. This only sting of their cruel and bloody industry made them fly to new combats and to new prey. Then the colony profited by their continual changes of fortune, and enriched itself by the vices which were the origin and ruin of their treasures: and when this lawless race was destroyed by its own activity, these same treasures became the base of a new opulence, by the help they offered to increase the plantations and productions, or to open a contraband trade with the Spaniards. On the whole, in whatever point of view any one considers Jamaica, it will be found that England owes the possession of it, as well as the means which determined the grandeur of its settlement, to the Buccaneers.

This island extends from 75 deg. 57 min. to 78 deg. 37 min. west longitude, and from 17 deg. 48 min. to 18 deg. 50 min. north latitude. It is about 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, where broadest; but being of an oval form, it grows narrower at each end. It is near about 36 leagues to Cuba, and 39 leagues to the west of St. Domingo: these two large islands defend it from the winds which desolate the Atlantic, whilst the number and disposition of its harbours put it in a condition to carry on a great trade with either these and the other islands of the West Indian Sea, or with the continent. There are about 16 principal harbours, besides 30 bays, roads, or good anchoring places. Though this situation may expose it to the insults of its too powerful neighbours, it at the same time facilitates the entrance of the succours the mother-country has at all times lavished on it.

There is no country between the tropics where the heat is more moderate, being constantly cooled with refreshing breezes, frequent rains, and night dews: however, it is unwholesome, especially on the sea-coast, and excessively hot in the mornings all the year round, till about eight o'clock, when the sea breeze begins, increasing gradually till about twelve, when it is commonly strongest, and lasts till two or three, when it begins to die away, and so continues till about five o'clock, when it is quite spent, and returns no more till next morning. About eight in the evening begins a land breeze, which blows four leagues into the sea, and continues increasing till twelve at night, after which it decreases till four in the morning, when it ceases, and returns again at night. The sea breeze is stronger at some times than at others, and more so near the coast than within land; whereas it is just the reverse with the land breeze. Sometimes the sea breeze blows day and night for a week or two. In December, January, and February, the north wind blows furiously, checking the growth of the canes, and all other vegetables, on the north side of the island; but the south side is sheltered from them by the mountains.

The dews here are so great within land, that the water drops from the leaves of the trees in the morning as if it had rained; but there are seldom any fogs, at least in the plain, or sandy places near the sea.

There

There is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that run through the island from east to west: the tops are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, *lignum-vitæ*, and mahogany, which render them equally pleasant and profitable to the inhabitants. Several fine rivers, well stored with fish, and navigable by canoes, take their rise from these mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater; and the vallies, or savannahs, are exceeding level, without stones, fit for pasture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, especially on the south-side of the island. After the rains, or seasons, as they are called, the savannahs are very pleasant, and produce such quantities of grass, that the inhabitants are sometimes forced to burn it; but, after long droughts, they are quite parched and burnt up.

Though this island abounds with rivers and lakes, water is very scarce in some places, and in others so mixed with sand and sediment, that it is not fit for use till it is purified for some days in earthen jars; and, in some years, many cattle perish for want of water. In the island are several salt springs, which form a salt river, and several lakes. Near the sea, as well as at Port Royal, the well water is brackish and unwholesome.

In the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It affords relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible distempers of Jamaica.

Though the soil of Jamaica, in general, is exceeding fertile, yet it is thought not one fourth of the sugar ground upon the island is cultivated. Even the grounds lying near the rivers and the sea are, in many places, over-run with wood, inasmuch, that a planter who has planted 3 or 4000 acres, has seldom above 500 well cultivated.

The most valuable production of this island is sugar. The cane, from whence it is extracted, is a kind of reed, which rises commonly about eight or nine feet, taking in the leaves growing out of the top; and the most common thickness is from two to four inches. It requires a light, porous, and deep soil, and is usually cut at the end of eighteen months. Within 24 hours after the canes are cut down, they break them between two rollers of iron or copper, which are put in motion by an horizontal wheel, turned by oxen or horses. The juice, with which the inner part of the cane is filled, is received in a reservoir, from whence it is successively carried to several boilers, to reduce it into crystals. This liquor is called treacle, or molasses. After the draining, they have muscovada, or rough sugar, which is greasy, brown, and soft. This sugar does not become white, shining, and hard, till it is refined, which is generally done in Europe; though there are two refining-houses at Kingston. The molasses are usually the twelfth part of the value of the sugar. A great deal of this article is consumed in the north of Europe, and in North America, where they supply the place of butter and sugar to the common people. The Americans use them to produce a fermentation; and they give an agreeable taste to a drink called Pruss, which is nothing more than the infusion of the bark of a tree. These molasses are likewise prodigiously useful, since the secret has been discovered to convert them, by distillation, into a spirituous liquor, known by the name of rum. The operation is performed by mixing one third of syrup with two thirds of water. When these two substances have sufficiently fermented, at the end of twelve or fifteen days they are put into a still, where the distillation is carried on with great facility. The annual exports of Jamaica, in these several articles, the produce of sugar-canes, come to upwards of 100,000 hogheads of sugar, between 30 and 40,000 puncheons of rum, and 300,000 gallons of molasses.

After sugar, the most considerable production of this island is Pimento, great quantities of which are annually exported. There are several kinds, more or less strong, and more or less acrid. The tree which produces that

kind of pimento known by the name of Jamaica Pepper, was not cultivated in regular plantations till the year 1668. It commonly grows on the mountains, and rises above 30 feet high. It is very strait, and covered with a grey, close, shining bark. The leaves are, in all respects, like the laurel; and at the end of the branches grow the flowers, to which succeed berries a little larger than juniper. They are gathered green, and laid to dry in the sun, when they grow brown, and get that spicy smell which has given to pimento the name of All-Spice. Its use is excellent in strengthening the cold stomach subject to crudities.

To the culture of pimento the people on this island join that of ginger. This is the root of a small plant, about 18 or 20 inches high. It was greatly in vogue about the middle of the last century; but, since that time, it has by degrees grown out of fashion, and is now only a secondary article of trade.

This island also produces a number of trees, shrubs, and useful plants, some of them natives of the soil, and others brought from the other islands of the continent. Among these are the following: the mahogany, the silk cotton tree, the dog-wood, the bitter wood, the bastard mammea, or Wood of St. Mary, and the *lignum-vitæ*. The trees are the oil-nut tree, the cocoa-tree, the tamarind-tree, and others which have their respective uses both for wood, convenience, and profit.

Here are likewise various sorts of dying woods, gums, and medicinal drugs. Among the latter are guaiacum, china-root, sarsaparilla, cassia, venillas, aloes, and the wild cinnamon-tree, which is esteemed a sovereign remedy for dispelling wind, and assisting digestion.

The fruits of Jamaica are oranges, lemons, citrons, palms, pomegranates, shaddocks, momies, four-sops, papao, pine-apples, custard ditto, star ditto, prickly pears, Alicada ditto, melons, plantains, tamarinds, and guavas, besides berries of several kinds.

This island also produces some tobacco, but of a coarse kind, and cultivated only for the sake of the negroes, who are fond of it; Indian and Guinea corn, with peas of various kinds, but none resembling those of Great Britain, except such as are reared with great care and tenderness in gardens, together with cabbages and a variety of roots, particularly cassava, of which they make bread; yams and potatoes.

The cattle of this island are but few: what they have are very small, and the flesh tough and lean. Their sheep, however, are tolerable, and their flesh very good; but the wool, which is long and full of hairs, is of little use. They have great plenty of hogs, and their flesh is sweet and delicate. Horses, asses and mules are very plentiful: the former are small, mettlesome and hardy, and, when well made, fetch a good price.

Here are various sorts of fowl, both wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parrots, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others.

In the bays and rivers is plenty of excellent fish; but the tortoise, or turtle, is by much the most valuable, both for its shell and fish, the latter being accounted the most delicious, and, at the same time, the most wholesome in all the Indies. The manatee, or sea-cow, which is often taken in calm bays, is reckoned by the Indians very good eating.

In the mountains are numberless adders, and other noxious animals, and in the fens and marshes the guana and gallewasip; but these last are not venomous.

The insect called the ciror, or chegoe, eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes; and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not, perhaps, till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a pen-knife, taking

taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. These insects sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the bone.

The inhabitants of Jamaica consist of English, or those of English extraction, born on the island, Indians, Negroes, Mulattos, or their descendants. The better sort of the English, on Sundays, or particular days, appear very gay. At other times they generally wear thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trousers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who are immediately employed in domestic services, go naked. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown carelessly wrapped about them. Before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace, in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dress. There is no country in the world where luxury is carried to a higher pitch than in this island. Equipages, clothes, furniture, tables, all bear the marks of the greatest affluence and profusion.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water, sherbet, or weak punch. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for more than 1s. per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call *kill-devil*, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which, in a short time, send them to their graves, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here soon after their arrival.

The current coin of the island is Spanish. There is hardly any place where silver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. Notwithstanding provisions are, in general, tolerably reasonable, yet a person cannot dine decently for less than a piece of eight; and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week.

Learning is here at a very low ebb. There are, indeed, some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education. But the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade, or riotous dissipation.

The established religion here, as well as in all the British islands, is that of the church of England; but there are no bishops. The bishop of London's commissary is the principal ecclesiastic in these islands.

The administration of public affairs in this island is by a governor, who represents the king, a council of 12, and 43 representatives of the people. The government, next to that of Ireland, is the best in the King's gift.

The misery and hardships of the negroes in general are great; and though the utmost care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that, instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they receive. Many of them, however, who fall into the hands of humane masters, find their situations easy and comfortable: and it has been observed, that in North America, where, in general, these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better.

On their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, they are exposed naked to sale, and are then generally very simple and innocent; but they soon become roguish from example. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought cheers their spirits, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise be intolerable. They look on death as a blessing; and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it. They are transported to think their slavery is near at an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old

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friends and acquaintances. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves embrace him, wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations when he is dead, but, with great joy, inter his body, believing he is gone home, and happy.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Surry, Middlesex, and Cornwall. These contain 19 parishes, over each of which presides a magistrate called a Custos. There are but few towns in the island, and the reason is, that the greater part of the inhabitants are dispersed on their plantations, which form so many villages or hamlets. The following are the chief:

St. Jago de la Vega, commonly called Spanish-Town, in Middlesex, is a small city, pleasantly situated. It is the residence of the governor, of the courts of justice, and the place where the assembly is held. The greater part of the inhabitants are persons of fortune or rank, which gives it an air of splendor and magnificence. The principal building is the governor's house, which is one of the most handsome in America. Here are also a handsome church, a chapel, and a Jewish synagogue.

Between this town and that of Kingston, is Port-Passage, a village of but few houses, and so called, because those who go from one town to the other, land or embark there.

Kingston, in the county of Surry, is the most considerable in the whole island, and at present the capital, being the residence of the merchants, and the chief place for trade. It is about a mile and a half long, and half a mile broad. All the streets, which are broad and regular, cross each other at right angles. The houses are much more elegant than those of St. Jago de la Vega, but the air is far from being so healthy. The Jews, who are very numerous here, have a fine synagogue. This town received considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane, which happened in the month of August, 1781. Many houses were blown down; and numbers of vessels that lay in the harbour, as well as at Port Royal, were driven ashore, some of which were sunk, and many others greatly damaged.

Kingston harbour is one of the most commodious in America, and so capacious, that 1000 sail of ships may ride in safety. It is the station of the British fleet.

The small town of Port-Royal was the most considerable and richest on the island at the time of the Buccaneers, whose disorders it cherished. It contained at that time 2000 houses, of which 1600 were swallowed up, or overturned, by a terrible earthquake, that happened in 1692. They had rebuilt a great part of them, when they were consumed by a fire in 1703. The excellence of the situation engaged the people to rebuild them a second time, when a hurricane, in 1722, made them an heap of ruins. These were again raised, but again destroyed, in 1744, by another hurricane, but never rebuilt. In October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea-port town of Savannah-la-Mar, and part of the adjacent country.

The commerce of this island is very considerable. The articles of exportation are sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, coffee, pimento, ginger, medicinal drugs, mahogany, and manchineel planks. Those of importation are linen, silk and woollen cloathing of all kinds, wrought iron, brass and copper, all sorts of hardware, toys, household furniture, and great quantities of flour.

To the north-west of Jamaica are three small islands dependent on this, and known by the name of the Caymans. The most southerly is distinguished by the name of Great Cayman: the other two, which are distant from it about 20 leagues, are called Little Cayman and Cayman-Brack. Great Cayman is the only one that is constantly inhabited: it is very low, and covered with high trees. It has not any harbour for ships of burthen, only a tolerable anchoring place on the south-west. The inhabitants, who amount to about 200, are descended from the old Buccaneers. They have given themselves a set of laws, and choose a chief to see them executed,

in conjunction with the justices of peace appointed by commission from the governor of Jamaica. As they have no clergyman among them, they go to Jamaica to be married. This colony is undoubtedly the most happy in the West Indies; the climate and the kind of food, which are of a singular salubrity, rendering the people healthy and vigorous, and making them live to a very advanced age. Their little island produces plenty of corn and vegetables, hogs and poultry, much beyond what is required for their own consumption. They have, besides, sugar-canes, and some springs of pretty good water. Being quite hardened to the sea, they are excellent pilots for the neighbouring coasts; and their island, as well as their activity and humanity, have been many times a relief to ships which were distressed in this part of the sea. Their principal employment is fishing for turtle. In almost every year leads a prodigious number of turtles to these islands to lay their eggs, the greater part of which come from the Bay of Honduras. The low and sandy shores of these islands, particularly of the Great, are perfectly commodious to receive and cover their eggs. A female lays some hundreds. When they have done laying, the turtles retire towards the Isle of Cuba, and the other large islands, where they recover themselves in the submarine pastures, and, in about a month's time, acquire that fatness which makes them so much esteemed on the tables of the great. The inhabitants of Great Cayman shut them up, as soon as they are caught, in enclosures, which they call *crawls*, made with stakes, in a smooth water, between the shore and a reef of rocks on the north-east coast. These turtles serve for all the traffic which they carry on with Port-Royal. It is an article of food which is very wholesome; and the shell of the hawk's-bill kind is a commodity which has a place among the exportations to Great Britain.

B A R B A D O E S.

WHEN the English first landed here in 1625, having obtained a grant through the interest of the Earl of Carlisle, they found the island uncultivated, and uninhabited. At first they applied themselves to the planting of tobacco, which not thriving as they expected, they planted cotton and indigo, which turned to a tolerable good account. Little sugar, however, was made till 1647, when other adventurers, living uneasy in England under the usurpation of Cromwell, converted their estates into money, and transported themselves to Barbadoes, where they erected sugar-works, and acquired very great possessions. In the year 1650 the white inhabitants of the island were increased to upwards of 30,000, with twice that number of negroes. King Charles II. purchased the property of the island in 1661, ever since which time it has been a royal government; and the colony granted a duty on their sugars for maintaining the forces and fortifications of the island.

Barbadoes, the most considerable of all the British sugar islands next to Jamaica, lies in between 59 deg. 50 min. and 60 deg. 2 min. west longitude; and between 12 deg. 56 min. and 13 deg. 16 min. north lat. extending 21 miles from north to south, and 14 from east to west.

The climate is hot, especially for eight months in the year, but not unwholesome; for though there are no land breezes, there are others arising from the sea, which increase as the sun advances to, and decrease as he declines from, the meridian. A temperate regimen renders it as safe to live in as any climate in Europe, south of Great Britain. The days are very near equal, the sun rising and setting about six o'clock all the year round.

Barbadoes is, in general, a plain level country, with some small hills. The woods have been all cut down to make room for the plantations of sugar-canes, which now take up the major part of the island, and render it the most valuable plantation to Great Britain, of its

size, that it ever possessed. The soil is various, being in some places sandy and light, in others rich, and in others spongy: but all of them are cultivated according to their several natures. The most valuable productions of this island are sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, indigo, and ginger. The rum which it produces is next in esteem to that of Jamaica.

The fruits here are various, and very plentiful; particularly pine-apples, guavas, plantains, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, tamarinds, mangroves, cedars, prickled apples, pomegranates, papays, custard apples, figs, bullies, cocoa, and cocoa-nuts. Indian corn can be imported from North America cheaper than it can be sold for when growing upon the island.

Here are great quantities of hogs; also oxen, cows, horses, asses, goats, monkeys, and racoons, with a few sheep and rabbits; but the mutton is greatly inferior to that of England.

The wild fowl are teals, curlews, plovers, snipes, wild pigeons, wild ducks, and a kind of bird called a man-of-war. The tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, that are bred in Barbadoes, have a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than those of Europe.

Insects are very numerous here, but they are not venomous; nor do either their snakes or scorpions ever sting.

The surrounding sea abounds with fish, some of which are almost peculiar to itself, as parrot-fish, snappers, grey cavallos, tarbuns, and coney-fish. Their mullets, lobsters, and crabs, are excellent; and the green turtle are caught here in vast quantities.

This island has two streams that are called rivers on each side, with wells of good water all over it, and large ponds or reservoirs for rain water. In its center it is said to have a bituminous spring, which sends forth a liquor like tar, and serves for the same uses as pitch or lamp-oil.

The inhabitants of Barbadoes, like those of the other islands, may be divided into three classes, viz. the masters, the white servants, and the black servants. The former of these are either English, Scotch, or Irish, with some Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Jews. The white servants lead more easy lives than the common day-labourers in England; and when they come to be overseers, their wages, and other allowances, are considerable. As to the black servants, it is the interest of every planter to be more careful of them than even of the white; the former, unless they should happen to be made free, being his perpetual property. Most of the negroes are employed in the field; but some of them work in the sugar-mills and storehouses, while those of both sexes, who are most likely, are employed as housemaids and menial servants. Every negro family has a cabin, and a small piece of ground adjoining to it, by way of garden, in which the more industrious sort plant potatoes, yams, and other roots, and rear live stock, which they are at liberty to eat, or convert into money for their own use. They are fond of rum and tobacco.

The governor of Barbadoes has a considerable salary. The council consists of twelve members, and the assembly of 22, chosen yearly, out of the several parishes, viz. two for each, by a majority of votes. Most of the civil officers are appointed by the governor, who also collates rectors to the parishes of the island. Their perquisites are very considerable. The church affairs of Barbadoes are governed by a surrogate of the bishop's appointment. There are upon the island some Jews and quakers, but very few other dissenters.

The inhabitants of this island support their own military establishment, which is respectable, with great credit.

The island is divided into five districts. In each of the districts is a judge and five assistants, who hold a court of common pleas every month, from January to September, and if any difficult matter arises, it is referred to the arbitration of the governor.

Bridge-

Bridge-Town, the capital, is situated on Carlisle-Bay, in the south-west part of the island, and has the best, or rather the only harbour in it. It is reckoned the finest and largest town in all the Caribbee Islands, if not in all the British West-Indian colonies. Bridge-Town takes its name from a bridge in the east part of it, erected over the waters that come from the neighbouring marshes; but a dreadful fire, which happened some years ago, destroyed a great part of it. It is the seat of the governor, council, and assembly, and also of the court of chancery. The governor's house is about a mile out of the town, which is not reckoned very healthy, on account of the neighbouring marshes. There are several forts and batteries about the town and bay.

There is a college in the town, which was founded and liberally endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island.

With respect to the commerce of Barbadoes, the principal articles of exportation are aloes, cotton, ginger, sugar, rum, and molasses. Those of importation are timber of various kinds, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, some salt beef and pork, fish, pulse, and other provisions, from the northern colonies; slaves from the coast of Africa; wine from Madeira, Tercera, and Frial, as also some brandy; beef and pork from Iceland; salt from Curassao; linen of all sorts, broad cloth, kerseys, silks and stuffs, red caps, stockings and shoes of all sorts, gloves and hats, millinery ware and perriwigs, laces, peas, beans, oats, strong beer, pale ale, pickles, candles, butter and cheese, iron ware for their sugar works, leaden ware, powder and shot, brass and copper wares, &c.

This island, as well as Jamaica, suffered the greatest calamities by the dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. The plantations were almost all destroyed; and Bridge-Town was reduced to a mere heap of ruins, scarce a building in it being left standing. No less than 11 parish churches, and 2 chapels, were levelled with the ground, among which was the fine church of St. Michael. The streets were covered with the ruins of the houses; and it was supposed that no less than 3000 persons perished. The ships in Carlisle Bay were driven out to sea, and several of them cast ashore and lost. The damage was so immense throughout the island as not to be estimated; and the whole formed a scene more melancholy and deplorable than it is possible for words to describe.

S T. C H R I S T O P H E R .

THE Island of St. Christopher, called by mariners

St. Kitt's, is situated in 17 deg. north latitude, about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is about 20 miles long, and 7 broad. It had its name from Columbus, in his first voyage to America. The French and English arrived here the same day in 1625, and divided the island between them. Three years after their settling the Spaniards drove them out of it. They soon returned, and continued to live in harmony till 1666, when war being commenced between the two nations, St. Christopher became, at different periods, the scene of war and blood-shed for half a century. In 1702 the French were entirely expelled, and the peace of Utrecht confirmed this island to the English. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

The assemblage of a great number of high and barren mountains makes St. Kitt's appear, to those who approach it by sea, like one huge mountain covered with wood; but they find, as they come nearer, that the coast grows more easy, as well as the ascent of the mountains, which, rising one above another, are cultivated as high as possible.

The climate of St. Christopher is hot, though, from the height of the country, much less than might be expected. The air is pure and healthy; but the island is subject to frequent storms, hurricanes, and earth-

quakes. The soil is, in general, light and sandy, but very fruitful, and well watered by several rivulets, which run down both sides of the mountains. The animals, vegetables, &c. are the same with those of Barbadoes. The whole island is covered with plantations, whose owners (noted for the softness of their manners) live in agreeable, clean, and convenient habitations, adorned with fountains and groves. Most of their houses are built of cedar, and the lands hedged with orange and lemon trees.

The most considerable town upon the island is Basse-terre, formerly the capital of the French part: the other is called Sandy-Point, and always belonged to the English. There is no harbour: on the contrary, the surf is continually beating on the sandy shore at the few places fit to land, which not only prevents the building any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or shipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often dangerous. They have been, therefore, obliged to adopt a particular method to embark, or put the heavy goods, such as hogsheds of sugar or rum, on board. For this purpose they use a small boat of a peculiar construction, called a *moses*: this boat sets off from the ship with some very active and expert rowers: when they see what they call a *lull*, that is, an abatement in the violence of the surge, they push to land, and lay the sides of the moses on the strand; the hoghead is rolled into it, and the same precautions are used to carry it to the ship. It is in this inconvenient and very hazardous manner, that the sugars are conveyed on board by single hogsheds. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to the ship both in going and coming.

The public affairs at St. Christopher's are administered by a governor, a council, and an assembly chosen from the nine parishes into which the island is divided, and which have each a large handsome church.

The Island of St. Christopher sustained great damage by a violent hurricane, which happened in the month of October, 1780. All the goods in the warehouses and cellars near the beach were totally destroyed, and upwards of 100 vessels were driven out to sea, many of which were lost, and the crews perished.

A N T I G U A .

ANTIGUA was discovered by Christopher Columbus, but not settled upon till the year 1632, when the English took possession of it. It is situated in 17 deg. north latitude, and is of a circular form, about 20 miles each way, and near 60 in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the English islands in these seas, yet so encompassed with rocks, that it is of dangerous access in many parts, especially to those that are not well acquainted with the coast.

The climate is hotter than Barbadoes, and very subject to hurricanes. The soil is sandy, and much of it overgrown with wood. There are but few springs, and not so much as a brook in the whole island; so that the principal dependence of the inhabitants arises from the water supplied by casual rains, which they save in cisterns.

The capital of Antigua is St. John, a regular built town on the western shore, with a good harbour of the same name, whose entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the residence of the governor-general of the Caribbee Leeward Islands, the place where the assembly for this island is held, and the port where the greatest trade is carried on. It was a very flourishing town before the fire in 1769. The best port in the island is English Harbour, on the south-side. At much trouble and expence, it has been made fit to receive the greatest ships of war. There are also a dock-yard with stores, and all the materials and conveniencies necessary to repair and careen. English Harbour is at a small distance from the town and harbour of Falmouth. There are, besides, Willoughby Bay, to the windward of English Harbour; Nonfuch Harbour, on the east point;

point; and the town and harbour of Parham, on the north side, also a great number of creeks and smaller bays; but, in general, the shore being rocky, wherever the landing would be practicable, it is defended by forts and batteries; and there is commonly one regiment of regular troops quartered there for the defence of the island.

The governor-general, when he thinks proper, calls a general assembly of the representatives of the other islands. Antigua has, besides, a lieutenant-governor, a council, and its own assembly, composed of 24 members. It is divided into 6 parishes and 11 districts, of which to send each two representatives, and that of St. John four.

N E V I S.

NEVIS, which is no more than a vast mountain rising to a very considerable height, is situated about four miles to the south of St. Christopher's. The soil is fruitful, and the staple commodity sugar, which serves all the purposes of money. Here are sometimes violent rains and hurricanes, as in the other islands, and the air is even hotter than that of Barbadoes.

On this island are many remarkable insects and reptiles, particularly the flying-tyger, the horn-fly, and a kind of snail called the soldier. The sea abounds with a variety of excellent fish, as groopers, rock fish, old wives, cavallies, welch-men, mud-fish, wilks, cockles, lobsters, &c. Land-crabs are very common here; they are smaller than sea crabs, and make little burrows, like rabbits, in the woods, towards the tops of the mountains. The only venomous creatures are scorpions and centipedes.

They have plenty of asparagus here; and there is a tree called diddle-doo, which bears a lovely blossom of the finest yellow and scarlet colours, and is esteemed a sovereign remedy in some disorders. The liquorice bush runs wild along the stone walls of common fields, like the vine. The butter here is not good, and their new cheese far worse. The sheep have neither horns or wool, but are clothed with smooth hair, and generally full of small red or black spots, resembling those of a fine spaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and generally bring two, three, or four lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary, suckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour, with a thick row of long, strait, red hair hanging down from the lower jaw to the breast, as far as the fore legs. The hogs, being fed with Indian corn, Spanish potatoes, and sugar-cane juice, are exceeding sweet food, white, and fat; as are the fowls and turkies, which are fed with the same diet. The ground doves here are about the size of a lark, of a chocolate colour, spotted with a dark blue, their heads like that of a robin-red-breast, and their eyes and legs of a most pure red. They have excellent game cocks and fierce bull-dogs, besides large cur-dogs, but no hounds or spaniels.

Nevis was formerly much more flourishing than at present, and, before the revolution, contained 30,000 inhabitants. The invasion of the French about that time, and some epidemical disorders, have strangely diminished the number to what they then were.

Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcastle, Littleborough on Moreton-Bay, and Charles-Town the capital, with a fort called Great Port, that defends the anchoring-place, where the governor, council and assembly meet; the last is composed of five members for each of the three parishes into which the island is divided.

Here, as in some of the other Caribbees, if a white man kills a black, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; and all that he suffers is a fine of 30l. currency to the master for the loss of his slave. If a negro strikes a white man he is punished with the loss of his hand; and if he should draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence against a white man.

The inhabitants have three public annual fasts, to

implore the Divine Protection against hurricanes; and if none happen in July, August or September, they appoint a public thanksgiving in October.

The trade of Nevis consists in molasses, rum, and a prodigious quantity of lemons.

This island, as well as the following, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the peace in 1783.

M O N T S E R R A T.

MONTSERRAT was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It lies in 16 deg. 37 min. north latitude, and 62 deg. 13 min. west longitude. It is 25 miles almost south south-east from Nevis; 20 west south-west from Antigua; 40 north-west from Guadaloupe; and 240 from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure; about three leagues in length; the same in breadth; and 18 in compass. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montserrat from a fancied resemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in Old Spain. It was settled in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who restored it to England at the peace of Breda. The first settlers were Irishmen, and the present inhabitants are principally composed either of their descendants, or of natives of Ireland.

The climate, soil, and produce of Montserrat are much the same as those of the other English Caribbee Islands. The mountains yield cedars, the cypress-tree, the iron-tree, with other woods, and some odoriferous shrubs. It is well watered and fruitful; and the planters formerly raised a great deal of indigo. The surrounding seas produce some hideous monsters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable ugliness, as well as the poisonous quality of their flesh, are called sea devils. The lamanture, by some called the sea-cow, is found in this island, and generally at the entrance of fresh water rivers. According to the accounts we have of it, it is an amphibious animal; and lives mostly on herbage. Its flesh is reckoned very wholesome food, when salted; and they are so large that two or three of them load a canoe.

The government of Montserrat is composed of a lieutenant-governor, a council, and an assembly of eight representatives, two for each of the four districts which divide the island.

Montserrat has not any harbour, only three roads, namely, at Plymouth, (which is the chief town in the island) Old Harbour, and Ker's Bay, where the shipping and landing of goods is attended with the same inconveniences as in the island of St. Christopher.

B A R B U D A.

BARBUDA is a small island in 18 deg. north lat. and 61 deg. 35 min. west long. 15 miles north-east of Montserrat; its length being about 20 miles, and its breadth 12. It is the property of the Codrington family, who have the appointment of the governor. Part of the estate arising from it, amounting, as is said, to 2000l. a year, with two plantations in Barbadoes, were bequeathed, in 1710, by Christopher Codrington, Esq. governor and captain-general of Barbadoes, to the society for propagating the gospel, towards the instruction of the negroes, in the Caribbee Islands, in the Christian religion, and the erection of a college at Barbadoes, for teaching the liberal arts.

The land of this island lies low, but is fertile: the inhabitants apply themselves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and raising provisions, with which they supply the neighbouring islands. Many of the commodities, however, which are raised in the other West India islands, may be also raised here, such as citrons, pomegranates, oranges, raisins, Indian figs, maize, coconuts, cinnamon, pine-apples, and the sensitive plant, with various kinds of woods and drugs, such as Brasil, ebony, pepper, indigo and the like. There are some large

large serpents on the island, but they are so far from being poisonous or noxious, that they destroy rats, toads and frogs; though the sting or bite of others is mortal, unless an antidote is quickly applied. On the west side of the island is a good well-sheltered road, clear from rocks and sands.

ANGUILLA

IS situated in 19 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. 57 min. west longitude, about 75 miles north-west of St. Christopher's. It is very long and narrow, which induced the Spaniards to give it the name of Anguilla, or "Eel." It is so low and flat, that the French, who were there first, did not think it worth cultivating, or even keeping. The English adopted the same opinion when they took possession of it, and the island was a long time in their hands before they perceived the contrary. Within a few years, industry, and the indefatigable labours of the planters of Anguilla, have convinced them that their island produces not only all the necessaries of life, but, besides, many provisions which they sell to their neighbours, as well as sugar and cotton. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants strong and vigorous. Their exportations are sugar, rum, and cotton.

To the north of Barbuda are several small uninhabited islands. The most remarkable of them lies at six leagues distance, and is about a league long. It consists of an eminence, to which the Spanish discoverers, finding some resemblance to a hat, gave it the name of Sombrero, which it has always preserved.

To the west of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having crossed a channel of eight leagues, begin the Virgin Islands. These take up a space, from east to west, of about 24 leagues long, quite to the eastern coast of Porto Rico, with a breadth of about 16 leagues. They are composed of a great number of isles, whose coasts, rent throughout and sprinkled with rocks, every where dangerous to navigators, are famous for shipwrecks, and particularly of several galleons. Happily for the trade and navigation of these islands, nature has placed in the middle of them a large basin of three or four leagues broad, and six or seven long, the finest that can be imagined, and in which ships may anchor landlocked, and sheltered from all winds. The Buccaneers called it The Virgins' Gangway; but its true name is The Bay of Sir Francis Drake, who first entered it in 1580, when he made his expedition against St. Domingo.

One of these islands is called The Tropic Keys, from the astonishing quantity of tropic birds which breed there. These birds are about the size of a pigeon, but round and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat. Their plumage is quite white, except two or three feathers in each wing, which are of a clear grey. Their beaks are short, thick, and of a pale yellow. They have a long feather, or rather quill, about seven inches long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the tail they have. They obtained their name from not having been ever seen but between the tropics.

The Virgin Islands are all of them small, and the greatest part uninhabited.

DOMINICA

THIS island was discovered by Columbus, who called it Dominica, because he first saw it on a Sunday. It is situated in 16 deg. north latitude, and 62 deg. west longitude; lies about half way between Guadeloupe and Martinico; and is about 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. The soil is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies; and the whole island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. Here, as in some other of the Caribbees, is a sulphur mountain, and hot spring, equal, in salubrity, to those of Bath, in England; and the fine fruits, particularly

the pine-apples, are superior to any that grow on the French islands. At the north-west end of the island is a deep, spacious, sandy bay, called Prince Rupert's, which is well secured from the winds by mountains on all sides.

The most distinguished place in this island is the town of Roseau, situated on a spacious harbour. The houses are low and irregularly placed; and the town is sheltered by the circumjacent mountains, some of which rise to a considerable height. The most advantageous view of the town is from the bay or harbour, where ships of considerable size ride at anchor with the greatest safety.

The French have ever exerted their efforts to prevent the English from settling on this island, as it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadeloupe. By the treaty, however, in 1763, it was ceded to the English; afterwards taken by the French, in 1778, and restored to Great Britain in 1783.

ST. VINCENT.

ST. Vincent, situated in 13 deg. north latitude, and 61 deg. west longitude, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth, lying about 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes. Out of the ridge of mountains, which crosses it from south to north, rise a great number of rivers, which are well stored with fish. These mountains are, in general, of an easy ascent; and the vallies and plains, some of them of a large extent, are exceeding fertile, producing most of the necessaries of life, particularly sugar, coffee, cocoa, and anatta.

When this island was ceded to Great Britain, by the treaty of Versailles in 1763, there was a great number of a mixed breed of the ancient Caribbees, and of shipwrecked or runaway negroes, but these have been all long since exterminated.

The most remarkable place in St. Vincent's is Kingstown, situated on a bay of the same name at the south-west end of the island. It is the residence of the governor, and the place where the assembly meet. About three miles from Kingstown, towards the south-east, is the town of Calligua, whose harbour is the most considerable in the whole island.

GRENADA, AND THE GRENADINES.

GRENADA is situated in 12 deg. north latitude, and 62 deg. west longitude, about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish main. This island is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad. The climate is good, and the soil rich and fertile, and particularly adapted for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of an island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island. Some of these may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening-place, 100 large vessels may be moored with perfect safety.

Near Grenada is a cluster of small islands, called the Grenadines. These islands produce very fine timber, sugar, indigo, tobacco, pease, millet; but the cocoa-tree does not thrive so well in them as in the other islands. These islands were all discovered by Columbus, but never settled by the Spaniards. The French first established a colony here, but were disturbed by the natives, who carried on a long and bloody war with their invaders. At length, however, they were compelled to submit to superior force, and then the settlements of the French rapidly increased:

In the last war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadeloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the Grenadines, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763. But in July, 1779, the

French made themselves masters of it; though it was restored by the treaty of 1780.

The Island of Grenada, with all those adjoining to it, sustained considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane that happened in the month of October 1780. Many of the houses were levelled with the ground, the plantations destroyed, and several ships which lay in the harbour totally lost.

C H A P. VIII.

BRITISH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

HAVING described the British Islands in the West-Indies, we shall next survey the other American Islands belonging to us, which are situated in different parts of the ocean; and as we shall begin at the northern extremity, Newfoundland will first engage our attention.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THIS island, which was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1507, is situated to the east of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north latitude, and between 53 and 59 deg. west longitude. It is about 350 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and is bounded on the north by Belleisle Strait, on the south and east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the Gulph of St. Lawrence. It has many excellent harbours.

The climate of Newfoundland is intolerably hot in summer, and intensely cold in winter. For four or five months in the winter the ground is covered with snow, frozen as hard as crystal. The southern and eastern coasts seldom enjoy a very serene sky, from their neighbourhood to the Great Bank, which is almost constantly covered with a thick fog; but in the northern and western parts the sky is very clear, both in summer and winter. The soil is, in general, barren. Most of the meadows and vales produce nothing but a kind of moss. Many species of timber, however, grow here in the utmost perfection; and the firs are as fit for masts as those of Norway. There are some fruitful spots, and a kind of rye which grows naturally without culture, and is very nourishing, with wild strawberries and raspberries. The island abounds with wild fowl, deer, hares, rabbits, foxes, squirrels, bears, beavers, wolves, otters, and other quadrupeds; and the sea is plentifully stocked with different kinds of delicious fish, besides cod, the staple commodity. It is certain, however, that the inhabitants would be in the utmost distress for bread, and many other necessities, but from the exports thither from the mother country, or the continent of America, from which they have almost every thing, except fish, venison, and wild fowl.

The value of Newfoundland consists in the trade for fish, of which there is such plenty on the coasts of the island, that the whole world almost might be supplied from it, all sorts being taken in immense quantities: but the principal fishery is of cod, wherewith a great number of ships are laden every year, for England, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and other parts. The main fishery is on the Great Bank, and the other banks about this island, as also along the coast. The Great Bank is a vast mountain under water, extending, in length, according to the most accurate sea-charts, from the 41st deg. of north latitude, to 49 deg. 25 min. and, in breadth, from 42 deg. 30 min. to 51 deg. 30 min. of west longitude. Its depth of water is from 5 to 60 fathoms. This bank is covered with a vast quantity of shells, and several kinds of fish of all sizes, most of which serve for food to the cod-fish, whose number is immense. Great numbers of vessels have loaded here annually for two centuries, yet this vast consumption has produced no very apparent diminution of their numbers.

The Green Bank is about 120 miles long, and about 50 over where broadest. It lies off the south coast of Newfoundland. There are several other banks, but they are not considerable enough to deserve particular notice.

The Great Strand, or drying-place for fish, which is about a league in extent, lies between two steep hills, one of which is separated from the Strand by a small rivulet, which forms a kind of lake, called the Little Bay, abounding with salmon. The Great Strand may contain at once wherewithal to load 60 ships. There is another lesser Strand for the use of the inhabitants, who fish all along the coast. The fishing season is from Spring to September. All the train oil that comes from Newfoundland is drawn chiefly from the livers of the cod. The principal towns are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John.

The Indians, or natives, of this island, are said to be a gentle, mild, tractable people, easily gained by civility and good usage. They paint their bodies, and, in winter, are clad in skins and furs.

The following is the process in catching the fish, preparing them, &c. The cod is caught with a harpoon, the best bait being a little fish, called capelan; but, for want of this, they sometimes make use of the intestines of the cod itself. As soon as the fisherman has caught a fish with his line, he pulls out its tongue, and gives the fish to another man, whom they call the beheader. This man, with a two-edged knife, like a lancet, flits the fish from the vent to the throat, which he cuts across to the bones of the neck: he then lays down his knife, and pulls out the liver, which he drops into a kind of tray, through a little hole made on purpose in the scaffold he works upon; he then guts it, and cuts off the head. This done, he delivers the fish to the next man, who stands over against him. This man, who is called the slicer, takes hold of it by the left gill, and rests its back against a board, a foot long, and two inches high: he pricks it with the slicing knife on the left side of the vent, which makes it turn out the left gill: then he cuts the ribs, or great bones all along the vertebræ, about half way down from the neck to the vent; he likewise does the same on the right side; then cuts assant three joints of the vertebræ through to the spinal marrow; lastly, he cuts all along the vertebræ and spinal marrow, dividing them into two, and thus ends his operation. A third helper then takes this fish, and, with a kind of wooden spatula, scrapes all the blood that has remained along the vertebræ that were not cut. When the cod is thus thoroughly cleaned (sometimes washed) he drops it into the hold, through a hole made for that purpose, and the salter is there ready to receive it. This assistant crams as much salt as he can into the inner part of the fish, lays it down, the tail end lowest, rubs the skin all over with salt, and even covers it with more salt; then goes through the same process with the rest of the cod, which he heaps up one upon another till the whole is laid up. The fish, thus salted and piled up in the hold, is never meddled with any more till it is brought home and unloaded for sale.

The

The cod intended for drying is caught and beheaded in the same manner; but the operation of salting varies in some few particulars.

This island, after various disputes, was ceded to England in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores. By the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that they did not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to Great Britain. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, to the south of Newfoundland, were ceded to the French by the same treaty, for curing their fish; but they engaged not to erect any fortifications, and to keep only 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and west coasts of Newfoundland.

C A P E B R E T O N.

THIS island is situated in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 45 and 57 deg. north latitude, and between 61 and 62 deg. west longitude, being about 100 miles long, and 80 broad. It lies about 20 leagues south-west from Newfoundland, and is separated by the Strait of Causo from Nova Scotia. The north coast is high, and almost inaccessible; but the south coast contains several excellent harbours, more particularly that of Louisburgh, one of the finest in America. The climate here is much the same with that of Quebec, only more subject to fogs. The air, however, seems to be pretty wholesome.

The island abounds with lakes and rivers, coals, and lime-stone; and though there are many barren spots in it, apples, pulse, wheat, and other corn, flax and hemp, are, or may be, raised in it. The most common trees are oaks of a prodigious size, pines fit for masts, ash, maple, plane, and aspin trees. There is no occasion for digging deep, or draining the waters, to come at the coals here, as in other countries.

Of animals there are horses, hogs, oxen, sheep, goats, and poultry, on the island, but game is scarce. The partridges are almost as big as pheasants, and not unlike them in the colour of their feathers. The quantities of cod and other fish on the coast is almost incredible; and there are numbers of whales, sea-wolves, porpoises, and seals.

The French began a settlement on this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were distressed by the English in 1745; but reinstated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was afterwards reduced in 1758, by the British troops and seamen, under General Amherst and Admiral Boscawen. It was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of 1763, since which the fortifications of Louisburgh have been demolished.

There are several small islands lying round Cape Breton, particularly those of St. Peter and Madame, or Maurepas.

S T. J O H N.

THIS island of St. John is also situated in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, about 40 miles north-west of Cape Breton, in between 45 and 47 deg. of north lat. being about 60 miles in length, and upwards of 30 in breadth. The air is clear and healthy, and the soil in most places rich, producing Indian corn, and a great variety of garden plants. Great part of the country was cleared, and so well improved, by the French, that it was called the Granary of Canada, from its supplying that colony with corn. The animals are the same as in Cape Breton. It abounds in excellent timber.

This island was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of 1763.

THE BERMUDAS, OR THE SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE are a cluster of very small islands, and were discovered by John Bermudez, a Spaniard, from whom they received their first name, as they did their second from Sir George Summer, who was cast away upon them in 1609, since which they have belonged to Great Britain. They are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, in 32 deg. north latitude. They have a clear temperate air, with plenty of flesh, fish, poultry, fruits, herbs, roots, &c. The climate, however, of late years, is altered for the worse. Cedars grow here, ambergris is found on the shores, and whales and turtles are caught on the coast. Here is a breed of black hogs which are much valued. White chalk-stones and tobacco are exported. Oranges and palmettos abound; and many things are found in great plenty, water excepted; for the inhabitants have none but what falls from the clouds.

The chief island is St. George, which takes its name from George-Town, and is a pleasant place, 16 miles in length, and three in breadth, and contains handsome buildings. The chief employment of the inhabitants is building small vessels.

These islands are thus described by Waller, the celebrated poet, who resided here during the civil wars of England.

BERMUDAS wall'd with rocks; who does not know
That happy island, where huge lemons grow,
And orange trees, which golden fruit do bear;
Th' Hesperian gardens boast of none so fair;
Where shining pearl, coral, and many a pound,
On the rich shore, of ambergris is found.
The lofty cedar, which to heav'n aspires,
The prince of trees, is fewel for their fires;
The smoak by which their loaded spits do turn,
For incense might on sacred altars burn:
Their private roofs on odorous timber born,
Such as might palaces for kings adorn.
Their sweet palmettos a new Bacchus yield,
With leaves as ample as the broadest shield;
Under the shadow of whose friendly boughs,
They sit carousing where their liquor grows.
Figs there unplanted thro' the field do grow,
Such as fierce Cato did the Romans shew,
With the rare fruit inviting them to spoil
Carthage, the mistress of so rare a soil.
The naked rocks are not unfruitful here,
But, at some constant seasons ev'ry year,
Their barren tops with luscious food abound,
And with the eggs of various fowl are crown'd.
Tobacco is their worst of things, which they
To English landlords as their tribute pay.
Such is the mould that the blest tenant feeds
On precious fruits, and pays his rent in weeds.
With candied plantiners and the juicy pine,
On choicest melons and sweet grapes they dine,
And with potatoes fat their wanton swine.
Nature these cates with such a lavish hand
Pours out among them, that our coarser land
Tastes of that bounty, and doth cloth return,
Which not for warmth, but ornament, is worn:
For the kind spring, which but salutes us here,
Inhabits there, and courts them all the year.
Ripe fruits and blossoms on the same trees live;
At once they promise what at once they give.
So sweet the air, so moderate the clime,
None sickly lives, or dies before his time.

THE BAHAMAS, OR LUCAYA ISLANDS.

THESE islands are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, to the north of the Island of Cuba, and not far from the coast of Florida, stretching from the north west to the south-east, between 21 and 27 deg. north latitude, and between 73 and 81 deg. west longitude. They are
very

very numerous, and twelve of them pretty large. Bahama, which is the largest, being about 50 miles in length, though very narrow, and gives name to the rest, lies 25 leagues from the continent of Florida. It enjoys a serene temperate air, with a fruitful soil, well watered every where with springs and rivulets.

Though these were the first lands discovered in America by Columbus, the Spaniards never thought of settling in them. The English knew nothing of them till 1667, when Captain William Seyle, being bound to Carolina, was forced among them by a storm, which gave him an opportunity of examining them carefully, particularly that which at present is known by the name of Providence. At his return he reported the benefit they might be made of to the state; upon which grants of them were made out to proprietors, called the Bahama Company; but the government was reserved in the hands of the crown.

The Straits of Bahama, which the British fleet so happily cleared in the last expedition against the Havannah, are well known to navigators, for the danger and difficulties that attend the passing them.

These islands lie near to Hispaniola, and to the noted port of the Havannah, in the Island of Cuba, where the Spanish galleons and flota always rendezvous before they return to Europe, having the Gulph of Florida to the west, and the Windward Passage to the east of them. In times of peace they are capable of great improvement in point of trade, and have always been a good retreat for disabled ships, blown from different parts of the continent of America. In times of war, the British cruizers and privateers, stationed at the Bahama Islands, are more capable to obstruct and annoy the Spanish trade, homeward bound, than any that are stationed at the rest of the British colonies in America.

The Bahamas were captured by the Spaniards during the last war, but they were retaken by the British arms in 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THESE islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name of Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received in our maps.

In the year 1764 the admiralty revived the scheme of a settlement in the South Seas, and Commodore Byron, who was sent to take possession of Falkland Islands in the name of his Britannic Majesty, in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by Captain Macbride, who, in 1766, succeeded that gentleman, as the outcasts of nature. "We found (says he) a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables length from the shore, must pass weeks without having any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away. But the goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural productions of these parts.

Falkland Islands can hardly be deemed British, as they seem to have been rather abandoned by the English, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain.

C H A P. IX.

THE FOX ISLANDS.

UNDER the general denomination of the Fox Islands (which were discovered by a Russian navigator) are comprised the Isles of Ooneemak, Oonanska, Amoghta, Saivoogham, Arnuk, Acootan, Oonella, Ataka, Kannaton, and Onoolashka. Of the latter we have given a particular description from the account of our much-esteemed countryman Captain Cook.

This group of islands (called by the Russians, Lyffie Altrova, or Fox Islands, from their abounding in foxes of divers colours) lies in about 42 deg. north latitude, and 150 deg. west longitude. The winters are milder here than in the more eastern climes, and continue, in general, only from the beginning of November to the end of March. The produce is, underwood, and small shrubs and plants, for the most part similar to those found in Kamtschatka. Warm springs and native sulphur are to be found in some parts.

Great numbers of sea animals, as sea lions, sea bears, and sea otters, resort to the shores. The foxes, during the day, lie in caves and cliffs of rocks. Towards the evening they come to the shore in search of food. They have long ago extirpated the brood of mice, and other small animals. They are not in the least afraid of the natives, but distinguish the Russians by scent, having found the effects of their fire arms.

The Fox Islands are, in general, populous. The natives live in separate communities, composed of fifty, and sometimes of two and even three hundred persons. Their habitations are in large caves from 40 to 80 yards long, from 6 to 8 broad, and from 4 to 5 high. The

roof of these caves is a kind of wooden grate, which is first spread over with earth. In the top are several openings, through which the inhabitants go up and down by means of ladders. In each cave is a number of partitions, appropriated to the several families, and these partitions are marked by means of stakes driven into the earth. The men and women sit on the ground, and the children lie down, having their legs bound together under them, in order to make them learn to sit upon their hams.

These caves are generally so warm, that both sexes often sit naked. The natives obey the calls of nature openly, without deeming it indecent. They wash themselves first with their own urine, and afterwards with water. In winter, and when they want to warm themselves, especially before they go to sleep, they sit fire to dry grafs, and walk over it.

Their habitations being almost dark, they use, particularly in winter, a sort of large lamps made by hollowing out a stone, into which they put a rush wick, and burn train oil.

With respect to their persons, the natives have black hair, flat faces, and are of good stature. The men shave, with a sharp stone or knife, the circumference and top of the head, and let the hair which remains hang from the crown. The women cut their hair in a straight line over the forehead. Behind they let it grow to a considerable length, and tie it in a bunch. Some of the men wear their beards, others shave or pull them out by the roots. They mark and colour their faces with different figures. They make three incisions in the

the under lip. They place in the middle one a flat bone, or a small coloured stone : in each of the side ones they fix a long, pointed piece of bone, in such a manner as to keep the nostrils extended. They also pierce holes in their ears, and wear in them what little ornaments they can procure.

The men wear a kind of shirts made of the skins of cormorants, sea-divers, and gulls ; and, in order to keep out the rain, they have upper garments of the bladders and intestines of divers sea-animals. Some of them wear common caps, of a party-coloured bird skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they wear a much more showy sort of caps.

The womens dress is made of the skins of sea otters, and sea bears. These skins are dyed with a sort of red earth, and neatly sewed with sinews, and ornamented with various stripes of sea otter skins and leathern fringes. They have also upper garments, made of the intestines of the largest sea calves and sea lions.

Their food chiefly consists of fish, and other sea animals, and they generally eat it raw. When they dress their food they use a hollow stone. Having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the chink with lime or clay. They then lay it upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision which is intended for keeping is dried in the open air, without salt. Their greatest delicacies are wild lilies and other roots, together with different kinds of berries. They eat at any time of the day without distinction ; but, in cases of necessity, are capable of fasting several days together.

They do not understand the art of distilling brandy, or any strong liquors ; but are very fond of tobacco and snuff, which the Russians have introduced among them.

They feed their children, when very young, with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold ; and they accordingly go bare-footed through the winter without the least inconvenience. They are also trained to bathe frequently in the sea ; and it is an opinion generally received among the islanders, that by such means they are rendered bold, and become fortunate in fishing.

No traces are found of any religious worship amongst them. Several persons, indeed, pass for sorcerers, and are held in high esteem, but without receiving any emolument. Filial duty and respect towards the aged are not held in estimation by these people. They are not, however, deficient in fidelity to each other ; and are of lively and chearful tempers, though rather impetuous, and prone to anger. Notwithstanding their savageness they are very docile ; and the boys, whom the Russians keep as hostages, soon acquire a knowledge of their language.

Marriage ceremonials are unknown among them. Each man takes as many wives as he can maintain, but the number seldom exceeds four. These women are occasionally allowed to cohabit with other men ; and they and their children are not unfrequently bartered in exchange for other commodities.

Feasts are very common among these islanders, and particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of another. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. This done, the guests sit down to partake of the fare provided for them, after which the diversions are introduced by the children, who dance and caper at the same time, making a noise with their small drums, while the owners of the hut, of both sexes, sing. Next follow the men almost naked, tripping after one another, and beating drums of a larger size. These are relieved by women, who dance in their cloaths, while the men sing and beat their drums. Those of the male natives who have several wives, do not withhold them from their guests ; but where the host has no more than one wife, he makes the offer of a female servant.

The month of November is chiefly employed by these islanders in hunting, by which they obtain the skins of sea bears for their cloathing. In the spring they kill old sea bears, sea lions, and whales. In calm weather, both in summer and winter, they row out to sea, and catch cod and other fish. Their hooks are made of bone, and their lines of long tenacious seaweed, which, in those seas, are sometimes found near 160 yards in length.

They have two sorts of vessels : the larger are tea-thern boats, or baidars, which have oars on both sides of them, and will hold 30 or 40 people : the smaller are rowed with a double paddle, and will contain but two at most. In these, however, they pass from one island to another ; and sometimes do not scruple to venture out to sea in them to a very considerable distance.

Strangers are not permitted to hunt or fish near a village, or to carry off any thing that is fit for food : therefore, when their provisions are quite exhausted on a journey, they are compelled to beg from village to village, and call upon their friends and relations for assistance.

The natives of these islands are very seldom engaged in war, either among themselves or with their neighbours. When it so falls out, and they happen to get wounded, they apply a kind of yellow root to the wound, and fast for some time. For relief in the head-ach they open a vein in that part, with a lancet made of stone.

Their weapons are bows, arrows, and darts. The latter they throw with great dexterity, and a very considerable distance. For defence of their persons they use wooden shields, which they call *kuijakin*. When they want to glue the points of their arrows to the shaft, they strike their noses pretty hard till they bleed, and use the blood as glue.

As these islanders have neither law or judge, the most atrocious crimes, and even murders, are suffered to pass unpunished.

Their funeral ceremonies, which are very singular, are as follow. When a poor person dies, the body is wrapped either in their own cloaths or mats, then laid in a grave, and covered over with earth. The bodies of the rich are bound round with thongs, and afterwards put in a kind of wooden cradle, supported by poles, which are placed cross-ways, and are exposed to the air until they rot. The surviving relations and friends express their grief, upon these occasions, by bitter lamentations.



C H A P. X.

SPANISH WEST-INDIA AND AMERICAN ISLANDS.

C U B A.

THIS island was discovered by Columbus in 1492. He had but a slight view of it, yet it proved fatal to the natives; for they having presented him with gold, some pieces of which he carried into Spain, it occasioned an immediate resolution to settle in it, which was accordingly effected in 1511.

The Island of Cuba extends in latitude from 20 deg. 20 min. to the tropic of Cancer; and from 74 deg. to 85 deg. 15 min. west longitude. It is about 700 miles in length from east to west, but very narrow in proportion, not being above 70 in breadth. It lies 60 miles to the west of Hispaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the east of Yucatan, and as many to the south of Cape Florida. It commands the entrance of both the Gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Passage; so that the Spaniards, who are the only possessors of it, may, with a tolerable fleet, not only secure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

In Cuba there are no winters; but in the months of July and August, when the sun is vertical, the rains and storms are great, otherwise the climate would be intolerably hot. The fairest season is when the sun is farthest off, and then it is hottest in the morning; for towards noon a breeze springs up, which blows pretty brisk till the evening. The trade winds in these seas blow from the north-east. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, there are brisk winds at north and north-west, which, in December and January, often turn to storms; though this is called the fair season.

The country is well watered, and agreeably diversified with woods, lawns, and vallies. The soil is capable of producing, in the greatest plenty, every thing that grows in the other American islands; but the Cuba (commonly called the Havannah) tobacco is thought to excel that of all the world: and their sugar would equal their tobacco in goodness, had they hands to cultivate the canes. The other products are ginger, long pepper, and other spices; cassia, mastic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, fine cotton trees, plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, cocoas, and two sorts of fruit, called camilor and guanavana; the first like a china orange, and the other shaped like a heart, with a juice between sweet and acid.

The Spanish plantations are furnished by the mines of Cuba with a sufficiency of metal for all their brass guns. Gold dust is found in the sands of the rivers; but it is uncertain whether there are any gold or silver mines, the hopes of which occasioned the butchery of all the ancient inhabitants, who were either unable or unwilling to discover them. If there are any, they are not worked. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island; but the land near the coast is generally a level champaign country. The interior parts lie quite uncultivated, and uninhabited.

The ports and harbours here are of great advantage to ships for passing the gulph in safety; but there are scarce any navigable rivers. Both the coasts and rivers abound with fish, and also with alligators. There are great conveniencies for making salt, but the inhabitants avail themselves very little of them. The cattle brought hither by the Spaniards have multiplied exceedingly, great numbers now running wild in the woods, of which many are killed chiefly for their hides and tallow, that are sent to Spain. Their flesh also, being cut into pieces and dried in the sun, serves to victual ships. These cattle are often so fat, that they

die through the burthen of their grease. Here are likewise abundance of mules, horses, sheep, wild boars, and hogs, together with wild and tame fowl, parrots, partridges, blue heads, large tortoises, quarries of flint, and several fountains of bitumen, which is used instead of pitch, as well as for medicinal purposes.

The Island of Cuba is pleasant, and its present state flourishing, the Spaniards having every year, for a considerable time past, added something to its improvement. Formerly its exportations never equalled those of the small British Island of Antigua. The reason of this, next to the indolence of the Spaniards, was the great facility with which the inhabitants got their money, by means of the galleons and the flota, and the very great contraband trade carried on here, in defiance of their laws, and even with the connivance of the government of the island.

The civil government of Cuba is dependent on that of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola. Its bishop, whose see is at St. Jago, though he commonly resides at the Havannah, is suffragan to the archbishop of St. Domingo. The east part of the island is under the governor of St. Jago, and the west under the governor of the Havannah. There are several large towns in the island; but the most considerable are the two above-mentioned.

The Havannah, the capital, is situated on the north-west coast of the island, 50 leagues from Cape Antonio, its westernmost point; 490 miles west from St. Jago; 41 leagues south of the Cape of Florida, the gulph of which it commands, by being situated at its mouth; and two days sail from the Straits of Bahama. The town itself, distinct from the fortifications, is about two miles in circuit. The port is one of the finest and most secure in the world, yet the narrowness of its passage has rendered it so difficult of access, that the galleons have often been insulted and taken within sight of it, without receiving any assistance from the fortifications. The churches here are inconceivably magnificent, and rich in plate and ornaments; the streets clean and strait, but narrow; and the houses, which are of stone, make a good appearance, but are ill furnished. The inhabitants, in general, are said to be more sociable and conversable than those of the other Spanish dominions in America. The city, which is one of the most rich in America, especially when the galleons are here, stands in the most fruitful part of the island, on the west side, along the shore, which rounds so much, that above half of it is washed by the sea, and the rest by two branches of the river Lagida. There is a fine square, with uniform buildings in the middle of it. This city is of greater importance to the Spaniards than any other in America, being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets, in return from that quarter of the world to Old Spain, and lying at the mouth of the Gulph of Florida, through which they are all obliged to pass. They justly give it the appellation of the Key of all the West-Indies, to lock or open the door or entrance thereto; and, indeed, no ships can pass that way without leave from this port. Here is always a squadron of Spanish men of war; and here, in September, meet the galleons, flota, and other ships, from several ports, both of the continent and islands, to the number of, perhaps, 50 or 60 sail, to take in provisions and water, with great part of their lading, and for the convenience of returning to Old Spain in a body. A continual fair is kept till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month, when a proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to stay in the town, on pain of death; and, upon firing a warning gun, they all go on board. The value of the cargo is seldom less than 700,000l. sterling: so that it may be well

well imagined, that a place of so much importance is in a condition both to defend itself, and to protect the ships that frequent it.

This city, after a long and obstinate defence, was surrendered, with all its forts and dependencies, to his Britannic Majesty's arms, by capitulation, on the 12th of August, 1762, but was restored by the peace of the following year.

The Spaniards have taken care to repair the damages which the fortifications received during the siege by the English, and added new ones, besides using every other precaution to secure it, for the future, from all attempts of an enemy.

St. Jago stands at the bottom of a large bay, about two leagues from the sea, on the south-east side of the island. It is distinguished from St. Jago in Chili, by the addition of Di Cuba, as the other is by that of Di Chili. Since the unsuccessful attempt made by the English, under Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth, the fortifications have been repaired, and the town has recovered some degree of its former splendor, carrying on a good trade with Old and New Spain, and above all with the Canaries.

The other towns of note are Santa Cruz, which has a tolerable harbour, and stands about 163 miles east of the Havannah; Porto del Principe, situated on the coast, about 300 miles south-east of the Havannah; and Baracoa, situated on the north-east part, which has a small harbour.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

THIS island, stiled by the natives Aitij, extends from latitude 17 to 20 deg. north, is about 450 miles in length, and about 150 in breadth. It is about 13 leagues distant from Cuba, which strait is called the Windward Passage.

Though the climate of this island is hot, it is not unwholesome, being refreshed by breezes and rains. It is both fruitful and pleasant, being diversified with hills and vallies, woods and rivers, producing ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots; together with whole forests of cabbage trees, elms, oaks, pines, acajou, and other trees, large and lofty. The other commodities are sugar, hides, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, salt, wax, honey, ambergris, and various kinds of drugs and dying woods. Crocodiles and alligators infest its coasts and rivers; but they abound at the same time with tortoises or turtles.

This island is possessed in common by the Spaniards and French. Columbus discovered it in 1492, and called it Spanish Island; a denomination which it has preserved under the name of Hispaniola, along with that of St. Domingo, derived from St. Dominique, to whom it was dedicated. They found there some gold mines exceedingly rich, which brought all the robbers of Spain in crowds. The greater part of the male Indians perished in these mines; and almost all the females by the excessive labour of cultivating the fields of maize for the use of the conquerors: the others were massacred, either in cool blood, or in ranged battles; for so they called those kinds of chaces which the Spaniards, covered with iron, and followed by bull-dogs, made to a multitude of these unhappy wretches, quite naked, and flying with all their might. The quick extermination of the natives, and consequently the difficulty of working the mines; the bloody quarrels of the conquerors among one another; the discovery of Mexico, soon after that of St. Domingo, drawing thither all the invaders; and, lastly, the pillaging of the capital by Drake in 1586; all these events conspired to bring on the decay of the new colony a few years after its establishment. The Spaniards, scattered about this large island, having become unable to hinder the Buccaneers from seizing the western parts, and settling themselves there, retired to the eastern side, which they have occupied since that time. Their part, both for

culture and commerce, is much the best: it has large fruitful plains, and the situation of its coast is infinitely more favourable to navigation than that of the French part.

The Spaniards, through their natural indolence, plant very little: their principal employment is to breed cattle, or to hunt those which have multiplied in the woods. They get from their neighbours stockings, hats, linen, guns, iron ware, and some cloaths; for which they give in return horses, horned cattle, smoaked beef, hogs, and hides.

The principal places in the island belonging to the Spaniards are the following:

St. Domingo, the capital, is a large well built city, situated on a spacious harbour on the south side of the island, and defended by a castle and other works. It has a university and a college, a Latin school, several convents, a magnificent cathedral, an hospital, and a fine market place in the center of the city. St. Domingo is also the residence of the governor-general of the Spanish Indies, of an archbishop, and court of royal audience. The archbishop's suffragans are the bishops of Conception in this island, St. John's in Porto Rico, St. Jago in Cuba, Venezuela in New Castile, and of the city of Honduras. The jurisdiction of the court of royal audience extends to all the Spanish West-Indian Islands. A fine navigable river falls into the sea a little to the west of it.

Conception is a considerable town, and the see of a bishop, 20 leagues north of St. Domingo. St. Jago de los Cavaleros lies 10 leagues north-west of Conception, and enjoys a fine air. Porto la Plata, or the Haven of Silver, stands on an arm of the sea, 35 leagues north of St. Domingo and Monto Christo, at the mouth of the river Yaguey, 10 miles west of Porto de la Plata, and 40 north-west from St. Domingo.

The towns belonging to the French in this island are the following:

Cape St. François, situate on the north side of the island, is in a very flourishing and opulent condition, having a fine harbour, a brisk trade, and a great number of inhabitants.

St. Lewis, or Port Lewis, stands on a small island on the south-west coast of the island, and possesses a good harbour, with a fort, but labours under a scarcity of fresh water.

Port Paix is a place of considerable strength, lying opposite the Island of Tortuga, on the north-west coast of the island.

Petit Cuaves, and Leogane, stand on Donna Maria Bay, near Cape St. Nicholas, at the west end of the island. The former is the oldest French settlement in the island, and a place of considerable trade; and the latter is the residence of the French governor-general, and of the royal judicature, with that of the supreme council, whose jurisdiction extends from Cape Mougou to the river Artibonite.

There are two other small places belonging to the French, called La Petit Riviere, and L'Estre, the latter of which stands a little within land.

The Island of Tortuga had its name from the turtles with which it formerly abounded. It is about 6 leagues long from east to west, and 3 where broadest. The French have a populous and flourishing settlement, called Cayona, with a harbour in the south part of the island. It yields all the commodities found in the other West-India Islands, together with wild boars; but has little or no fresh water.

Of the other islands on this coast the chief are Savona and Mona, belonging to the Spaniards.

P O R T O R I C O.

THIS island is situated between 64 and 67 degrees west longitude, and in 18 degrees north latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's. It is about 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. The chief part of the country is diversified with woods, vallies,

vallies, and plains; and it is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the air is excessive hot, and, during the rainy season, very unwholesome.

The north part of the island, which is the most barren, contains several mines, some of which formerly produced great quantities of silver and gold. It was on account of the latter that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity found in it.

In the woods are parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coast abounds with fish. A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt and tear in pieces the defenceless natives, are said to run wild in the woods, and subsist upon land-crabs that burrow in the ground.

The principal commodities here are sugar, ginger, hides, cotton, thread, cassia, mastic, &c. Their pork is excellent, as is likewise the flesh of their kids, but their mutton is very indifferent. They have good ship-timber and fruit-trees, with rice and Indian corn.

This island was taken from the Spaniards by Sir Francis Drake. It was afterwards conquered by the Earl of Cumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; but he was obliged to abandon it, having lost most of his men by sickness in the latter end of the summer, when this, and all other places in these latitudes, are very unhealthy.

The Spanish government have taken great pains to prevent an illicit trade being carried on at this place; but such is the convenience of its situation for that traffic, that all the severe edicts issued against it have been ineffectual.

Porto Rico, the capital town, is situated on a small island on the north coast. This island forms a very convenient harbour, and is joined to the chief island by a causeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almost inaccessible. The town is well built, and populous, and the seat of a governor, as well as a bishop's see.

The only places worthy of notice in this island, exclusive of the capital, are Port del Agnada, where the flota provide themselves with water, and other necessities, in their voyage to Old Spain; and Boraba de Infernes, which is remarkable for having an excellent turtle fishery.

On the coast of Porto Rico is a small place, called Crabs Island, from the great number of crabs that are found on it.

T R I N I D A D.

THIS island lies between the Island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy climate, though a fruitful soil. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered it, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

The principal productions of this island are sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, some cotton trees, and Indian corn.

M A R G A R I T A

LIES 200 miles west of Trinidad, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth, and, being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. It abounds in pastures, fruits, and Indian corn; but there is a great scarcity of wood and water. On the coast of this island was formerly a pearl fishery, but it has been for many years discontinued.

IN the South Seas the Spaniards claim the Islands of Chiloe, St. Mary, Quiriquina, Moca or Mocha, Juan Fernandez, Tierra, Fuera, and several others; but Juan Fernandez, Fuera, and Chiloe, only deserve description.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN THE SOUTH SEAS.

J U A N F E R N A N D E Z.

JUAN Fernandez, and Fuera, or Mafa-Fuero, are distant from each other about 31 leagues. They were first discovered by Juan Fernandez, a Spaniard, from whom they take their name, in 1572. The Spaniards distinguish them by the Greater and Lesser Juan Fernandez; but the smaller island is more generally known by the name of Mafa-Fuero. The Greater Juan Fernandez lies to the eastward, in latitude 33 deg. 40 min. south, and longitude 78 deg. 30 min. west. It was formerly a place of resort for the buccancers, who annoyed the western coast of the Spanish continent. They were led to resort hither by the multitude of goats which it nourished; to deprive their enemies of which advantage, the Spaniards transported a considerable number of dogs here, which, increasing greatly, have almost extirpated the goats, who now only find security among the steep mountains in the northern parts, which are inaccessible to their pursuers.

There are instances of two men living, at different times, alone on this island for many years: the one a Musquito Indian; the other Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was, after five years, taken on board an English ship, the Duke privateer, from Bristol, which touched here in about 1710, and brought back to Europe. From the history of this recluse, Daniel Defoe is said to have conceived the idea of writing the *Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*. Selkirk was a native of Largo, in the county of Fife, and was bred a sailor from his youth. The reason of his being left on the island was a difference between him and his captain. He had his cloaths and bedding with him; also a fire-lock, a little powder, some bullets and tobacco, a hatchet, a kettle, a knife, a bible, some books of practical divinity, and his mathematical instruments and books. He built himself two huts; one for the purpose of reading, sleeping, and amusement; the other for dressing his victuals. He procured fire by rubbing two sticks of pimento wood upon his knee. He found here a sort of cray-fish, of exquisite flavour, and as large as a middling sized lobster. These he both broiled and boiled, as he did the goats flesh, and made very good broth of it. There was abundance of good turnips and cabbages here. When his clothes were worn out, he made himself a coat and cap of goats skin. Having some linen cloth by him, he cut out some shirts, which he sewed with the worsted of his old stockings, pulled out on purpose, using an old nail to make holes instead of a needle; and he had his last shirt on when he was found.

He had so far forgot his native tongue, for want of use, that, on his first going on board, he could not speak plainly. A dram was offered him, but he would not taste it, having drank nothing but water for so long a time. He was left here by Capt. Stradling, commander of a vessel called the *Cinque Ports*, and taken away by Capt. Wood Rogers, who landed at this island to procure water.

This island was very propitious to the remains of Commodore Anson's squadron in 1741, after having been buffeted with tempests, and debilitated by an inveterate scurvy, during a three months passage round Cape Horn. They continued here three months, during which time the dying crews, who, on their arrival, could scarcely, with one united effort, heave the anchor, were restored to perfect health.

Capt. Carteret, in the *Swallow*, in 1767, having met with many difficulties and impediments in his passage into the South Sea, by the Straits of Magellan, attempted to make this island, in order to recruit the health of his men; but he found it fortified by the Spaniards, and therefore chose rather to proceed to the Island of Mafa-Fuero. But M. de Bougainville, that same year, is said to have touched here for refreshments; although,

in the narrative of the voyage, the fact is cautiously suppressed.

This island is not quite 15 miles long, and about 6 broad. It has only one safe harbour, which is on the north side. It is said to have plenty of excellent water, and to abound with a great variety of esculent vegetables, highly antiscorbutic: besides which, Commodore Anson sowed a variety of garden seeds, and planted the stones of plumbs, apricots, and peaches, which he was many years afterwards informed had thriven greatly, and now, doubtless, furnish a very valuable addition to the natural productions of this spot.

Vast shoals of fish, of various kinds, frequent this coast, particularly cod of a prodigious size, and, it is said, in not less abundance than on the banks of Newfoundland. There are but few birds here, and those are of species well known and common.

FUERA, OR MASA-FUERO.

COMMODORE BYRON anchored off this island in 1765, and sent out his boats to endeavour to get wood and water; but as the shore was rocky, and a surf broke with great violence upon it, he ordered the men to put on cork jackets, by the help of which they brought off a considerable quantity of both. Here they found plenty of goats, which proved to be as good food as venison in England. In this expedition the gunner, and a seaman who could not swim, went on shore with the waterers, and, when the business was completed, the violence of the surf, which beat against the shore, made them afraid to venture off to the boat: they were, therefore, left behind on the island. The next day the commodore sent out a boat to bring them back. The gunner swam through the surf, and got on board; but the seaman had so thorough a presage of being drowned in the attempt to reach the boat, that, preferring life to social intercourse, he chose to remain on the island at all events. Having formed this resolution, he took an affectionate leave of the people in the boat. A midshipman, however, just as they were about to return without him, taking one end of a rope in his hand, jumped into the sea, and swam through the surf to the beach, where the poor insolated despondent sat ruminating on his situation. The young man remonstrated to him on the absurdity of the resolution he had formed, and having made a running noose in the rope, suddenly threw it over the sailor, and fixing it round his body, the people in the boat began to drag him through the surf, and thus brought him on board; but he had swallowed so great a quantity of water on his passage, that he was to all appearance dead; but proper means being used, he soon recovered, and was, no doubt, abundantly thankful for the friendly violence that had forced him from the dreary solitude which his fears had before courted.

Capt. Carteret describes this island to lie in 33 deg. 45 min. south longitude, 80 deg. 46 min. west, from Greenwich. It is very high and mountainous, and, at a distance, appears as one hill or rock. It is of a triangular form, and seven or eight leagues in circumference.

Here is such plenty of fish, that a boat, with a few hooks and lines, may presently catch as much as will serve 100 people. Here are coal-fish, cavilliers, cod, halibut, and cray-fish. Capt. Carteret's crew caught a king-fisher that weighed 87 pounds, and was five feet and a half long. The sharks here were so ravenous, that, in taking foundings, one of them swallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water; but he regained his liberty by disgorging his prey. Seals are so numerous here, that Capt. Carteret says, if many thousands were killed in a night, they would not be missed the next morning. These animals yield excellent train oil; and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taste something like those of a hog. Their skins are covered with very fine fur. There are many birds here, and some very large hawks. Of the pintado bird the crew of the swallow caught 700 in one night.

C H I L O E.

CHILOE, a considerable island, on the coast of Chili, lies in south latitude deg. and is above 112 miles long, and 21 broad. The south part of it is divided from the continent by a narrow sea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coast is subject to tempestuous weather, especially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this island, called Chacao, always ill provided with warlike stores. Bating wine, this island produces all necessary refreshments and provisions; and a great deal of ambergris is found here. About this island are 40 more, all taking name from it.

A late navigator tells us, these islands of Chiloe are reputed barren; but their soil is not really so, only the excessive rains choak the seed, and let no corn thrive; so that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much sun.

The nature of the climate of this cluster of islands is such, that it rains almost all the year; so that only maize, or other such grain, can ripen, that want not so much sun. The diet of the natives is mostly of a root called papahs, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are clothing for the Indians, who have a kind of vest, which they call macun, without sleeves, over which is a kind of cloak. They have vast woods of cedar trees of a prodigious size, so as hardly to be encompassed by a rope six yards long. The principal town is called Castro.

C H A P. XI.

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS BELONGING TO THE FRENCH, DUTCH, AND DANES.

SECTION I.

FRENCH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

MARTINICO.

THE Island of Martinico is situated between the 14th and 15th deg. of north lat. and in the 61st deg. of west longitude. It lies about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, and is about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth.

No. 49.

The climate of Martinico is not esteemed unwholesome; though there is a dampness in the air which, at times, must be disagreeable. The inland parts are mountainous, and from thence arises many rivulets, which, in their course towards the sea, at once adorn and fertilize the country.

The productions of this island consist of sugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, indigo, aloes, pimento, cocoas, plantains, and other tropical fruits. The coasts abound with turtles; but the French are not so expert in fishing for them as the English.

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In the year 1700 the French settled upon the island of Martinico were computed to be 1500, besides the negroes whom they employed, and great numbers of Caribbeans, who were re-admitted into the island, but were obliged to work as slaves, and to live among the French, that they might have no opportunity to form conspiracies or plots with their countrymen, or to associate together. Before it was subdued by the English in 1759, it contained 10,000 white inhabitants fit to carry arms, and above 40,000 negroes or slaves. Besides this force, some companies of regulars were always quartered in the island; so that nothing but the most notorious misconduct could have rendered the British troops masters of it with so little loss as they suffered on that occasion.

Martinico is not only the residence of the governor-general and intendant, but likewise of a sovereign council, which superintends all their other islands, and even the settlements of St. Domingo and Tortuga.

The island owes its flourishing state to the French government having transported thither, by way of punishment, great numbers of its Protestant subjects, some of whom voluntarily settled there.

The two principal towns in this island are Fort Royal and St. Pierre, or St. Peter's. The first is the seat of government: its streets are regular, the houses agreeable, and the inhabitants very much given to all kinds of luxury: they are the Parisians of the West-Indies. To the east of the town, on a neck of land, is an irregular fort, badly built, and worse designed, which gives name to the town it poorly defends. Fort Royal, as well as the rest of the island, fell under the power of the English in the year 1759, but they restored it at the peace of 1763. The French have since built a citadel upon Morne Garnier, an eminence higher than the most elevated points of Mornes Patate, Tartanson, and Cartouche, which all command Forte Royal.

The harbour of Fort-Royal, where the men of war anchor in winter, is one of the best of the Windward Islands, and its security against the hurricanes generally acknowledged. It is supposed that the inner part has been spoiled by sinking the hulks of several ships to make a fence against the English in the war of 1759.

The Fort of St. Pierre is five leagues to the leeward of Fort Royal, in a round bay of the western coast. The town, the first built in the island, is the place of communication between the colony and mother country. It is the residence of merchants, and the center of business. That part situated along the sea-side, on the strand itself, called Le Mouillage, (the anchoring-place,) is very unhealthy. The other port, separated from this by a river, is built upon a low hill; and they call it the Fort from a small fortress which defends the road. This road is very convenient for loading and unloading the ships, and the facility of coming in or going out; but they are obliged, in winter time, to take shelter at Fort Royal.

The town of St. Pierre suffered great damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October 1780, in which 200 houses were blown into the sea, and great damage was done among the shipping that lay in the harbour.

The chief export of Martinico is sugar, of which vast quantities are annually shipped for France.

G U A D A L O U P E.

THIS island is situated about 30 leagues north-west of Martinico, in 16 deg. north latitude. It is about 45 miles in length, and 38 in breadth, and is divided by a deep gulph or bay, and a channel, called the Salt River.

The air of Guadaloupe is preferable to that of Martinico, being more salubrious, and less sultry. The soil is very fertile. Its products are sugar, coffee, cotton, bastard cinnamon, indigo, ginger, and many other vegetables, particularly the capau-tree, from which is extracted a most excellent balm; the milk-

shrub, so called from its yielding a substance like milk, when pressed, which falls little short of the capau balsam; the moubane-tree, which bears a yellow plum, with which the natives fatten their hogs; and the corbary-tree, the gum of which, when hardened in the sun, becomes so translucent, that the Caribbeans wear it formed into beads and bracelets.

Many of the mountains, with which Guadaloupe abounds, are covered with wood; and nothing can be more verdant, or more beautifully variegated, than the large plains which lie beneath them. One of the mountains emits a continual smoke, and communicates a sulphurous taste to the neighbouring streams.

The most remarkable bird on this island is that called the Devil's Bird, which is peculiar to this island and Dominica: it is a bird of passage, of the size of a pullet, and all its plumage coal black: it lives on fish, which it catches in the sea at night, being unable to bear the light in the day-time when flying; so that they often run against interposing objects, and fall down. After their fish-hunting in the night, they repair to a mountain called the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. Their flesh is good nourishing food, though of a fishy taste.

The island is pestered with an insect called a raver, shaped like a cock-chaffer, of a stinking smell, which destroy both books and furniture; and whatever they do not gnaw is discoloured by their ordure: but great numbers of them are destroyed by a kind of spiders found on the island, some of which are as big as a man's fist. The bees of Guadaloupe are exceeding different from those of Europe, being black, smaller, and without stings. These bees, instead of making combs, lay their honey in bladders of wax, about the form and size of a pigeon's egg. The only use made of their wax, which is of a dark purple colour, is to secure the corks of bottles. The honey is never of a thicker consistence than that of olive oil.

The Cul de Sacs, as the French call them, or gulphs about this island, abound with turtle, sharks, land crabs, and various other fishes.

One of the two divisions of this island is called Grande-Terre; and the other is divided into Capes Terre, or Cables Terre, and Basse-Terre, which last is also the name of the capital, a very considerable town, situated on both sides of Bailiff River, and well fortified.

This island, as well as Martinico, was reduced by the British arms in the year 1759, but restored by the definitive treaty of peace in 1763. The French first began to send colonies to it about the year 1632.

S T. L U C I A.

THIS island, which is situated in 14 deg. north latitude, was first settled on by the English in 1637, who were much annoyed by the natives and the French. At length it was agreed between the latter and the English, that St. Lucia, with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. By the definitive treaty of 1763, it was ceded to France. St. Lucia lies two miles south of Martinico, and is about 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is one of the finest and most convenient of any of the Caribbee Islands, being diversified with hills and vallies, well watered, and furnished with excellent harbours. The land is rich, but a great part of it is covered with woods, which abound in wild fowl, and yield great quantities of excellent timber. The neighbouring sea is well stored with fish.

St. Lucia sustained considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. Great numbers of houses were levelled with the ground; and the ships in the harbour being driven out to sea, many were lost.

This island was taken by the English forces in 1778, but restored to the French by the treaty of peace in 1783.

MARAGAI ANTE.

M A R A G A L A N T E .

THIS island, which is situated to the south-east of Guadaloupe, is about 15 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and named by him Marigalante, or the Gallant Mary, after the name of his ship. It abounds with tobacco, cinnamon-trees, and other products of the Caribbee Islands; and contains a great many grottos, where large crabs are found; as also several rivers, and ponds of fresh water. Along the eastern shore run high perpendicular rocks, which give shelter to vast numbers of tropical birds, as they are full of holes like a pigeon-house.

T O B A G O .

THE Island of Tobago lies 40 leagues south by west from Barbadoes, about 35 south-east from St. Vincent, 40 east from Grenada, and between 30 and 40 from the Spanish Main. It is 32 miles in length, about 9 in breadth, and 70 in circumference; so that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or, indeed, any of our Leeward Islands; and near the north-west extremity lies a small island called Little Tobago, which is two miles in length, and one in breadth.

The climate is far more temperate than could be expected in an island that is but 11 deg. 10 min. north from the equator; for the force of the sun is diminished by the sea breezes. The spice and gum trees, with which it abounds, contribute to its salubrity. Tobago has another favourable circumstance to recommend it, namely, its lying out of the track of those hurricanes that often prove so fatal to the other West India Islands. The north-west extremity is mountainous, but the rest of the island agreeably diversified with risings and fallings. The soil, in general, is a rich black mould, proper for producing, in the greatest plenty, whatever is raised in other parts of the West Indies. There are many springs, together with commodious bays and creeks. But the valuable trees which grow here, are, perhaps, its greatest riches; for, besides the different kinds of wood that are found in the other West India Islands, it is said, that the true nutmeg-tree, and the cinnamon tree, with that which produces the real gum-copal, are found on this island. The fig-trees of Tobago are reckoned equal to those of Spain and Portugal. Indian and Guinea corn, French beans, various kinds of peas, the coshou-apple, that is both meat and drink, and yields an excellent lamp-oil; the prickly-apple, banana, pomegranate, pine-apple, sweet and bitter orange, lemons, sugar, tobacco, indigo, ginger, sarsaparilla, semper vivum, citrons, vanellos, limes, guavas, plantains, tamarinds, grapes, custard-apple, sour-apple, papaw-apple, mammea-apple, yellow plum, cherries; the cocoa-tree, that yields both meat, drink, and clothing; musk, cucumbers, water-melons, pumpkins, gourds, potatoes, yams, carrots, turnips, parsnips, onions, cassada-root, natural balsam, silk-grass, with five different sorts of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and the Jamaica.

As for animals, here are wild hogs, pickarees, which resemble a hog; armadilloes; guanoes, which are of the alligator kind; Indian conies, badgers, horses, cows, asses, sheep, deer, goats, and rabbits. No island in the world, we are told, can boast such a variety of fishes, both shell and others, particularly turtle and mullets, of a most delicious taste. Of the feathered species there is also a great variety. Lastly, in different parts of the island are found green tar, soap earth, with many curious shells, stones, marcasines, and minerals.

The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable ornaments which have been sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It was heretofore chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseve-

rance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1673, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. MARTIN, ST. BARTHOLOMEW, AND DESEADA ISLANDS.

THESE are three of the most inconsiderable islands the French possess in those parts. St. Martin's is of no consequence whatever. St. Bartholomew produces some tobacco, also excellent woods and lime-stones. Deseada, which is a corruption of the word Desiderada, or the Desirable Island, was so called by Columbus, being the first land he discovered in his second voyage to America. It produces very good cotton.

S E C T I O N II.

DUTCH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

S T. E U S T A T I A .

THE Island of St. Eustatia is situated about three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 29 miles in circumference, and well cultivated. Besides tobacco, the inhabitants have of late years raised and exported great quantities of sugar. They also breed hogs, rabbits, goats, and most sorts of poultry. The air is wholesome, but it is subject to terrible thunder-claps, earthquakes, and hurricanes; and there is a scarcity of fresh water. Before a hurricane, it is said, the birds lay themselves flat on the ground; and the rain that precedes it is always salt and bitter.

St. Eustatia is reckoned the strongest of all the Caribbee Islands, there being but one landing-place, which is commanded by a fort, and may be easily defended by a few men. The Dutch took possession of it in 1635; and, since the treaty of Ryswick, preserved it till February, 1781, when it was taken from them by the British forces, under Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan: but in November following it was retaken by the French.

This island sustained considerable damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. Great numbers of warehouses were blown down, and most of the goods destroyed, the whole loss of which was estimated at 150,000l.

C U R A S S A O , O R C U R A C O A ,

IS situated about 10 leagues from the coast of Terra-Firma, in 12 deg. 14 min. north latitude. It is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The climate is neither wholesome or agreeable, nor the soil fruitful; yet the island is populous, and the industry of the inhabitants such, that it produces a great deal of sugar and tobacco. It is well supplied with provisions, and all other commodities from Europe, and the other Dutch settlements, in which it carries on a very lucrative and extensive contraband trade with the Spaniards in Terra Firma. Let the Spanish governors prohibit this trade ever so severely, the Spaniards stand so much in need of European commodities, that they will run all hazards to obtain them. The chief town and harbour is about three leagues from the south-east end of the island. The town, for its size, is one of the fairest and finest in America, and contains every thing necessary to render it commodious and agreeable, as far as the climate and soil will permit.

Here are three other smaller islands belonging to the Dutch, namely, Saba, Bonaire, and Aruba.

Saba is a very pleasant island, situated about 13 miles north-west of Eustatia. The sea is so shallow about it, that none but sloops can come near it; nor even those, but at a small creek, on the south side of the island.

island. Most of the inhabitants are said to be shoe makers, or dealers in shoes. There is a delightful valley in the island, which produces necessaries for the inhabitants, with some indigo and cotton.

Saba, and an island called St. Martin's, were both captured by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan at the time of the surrender of St. Eustatia; but were afterwards re-taken by the French.

Bonaire and Aruba are chiefly considerable (which is also the case with Curassao) for their situation near the coast of Terra-Firma, which gives the inhabitants an opportunity of carrying on a clandestine trade with the Spanish settlements in Terra-Firma.

On the south side of Bonaire is a good salt-pond, whither the Dutch sloops come for salt, which is become a considerable commodity.

SECTION III.

DANISH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

ST. THOMAS.

THE island of St. Thomas is situated to the east of Porto-Rico, and is the chief of those called The Virgin Islands. It is about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour, which, by being open to traders of all nations, enriches the inhabitants. Its soil is, in general, very sandy, notwithstanding which it produces most of the West-Indian commodities; but it is greatly infested with musketos.

The principal advantage of this island consists in a very good harbour on the south side, where 50 ships may lie in safety. It is defended by a fort, whose batteries at the same time protect the small town built round the shore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant ships: when they are chased, in time of war, they find here a safe protection; and, in time of peace, a vent for their goods, by the clandestine trade which the boats of St. Thomas continually carry on with the Spanish coasts.

Two leagues to the south of St. Thomas is another island, about the same size, called St. John's. It is the best watered among the Virgins, and its harbour has not only the reputation of being better than that of St. Thomas, but passes also for the best to the leeward of Antigua. The English give it the name of "Crawl Bay." But notwithstanding these advantages there is so little good land in the island, that its planting and exportations form only a very trifling object.

St. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ,

IS the most considerable of the West-India islands belonging to Denmark. It is situated out of the group of the Virgins, five leagues to the south of St. John's, being about 30 miles in length, and ten in breadth. It is tolerably fertile, producing most of the necessaries of life, together with oranges, citrons, granates, lemons, the manioc root, and the papan tree, the fruit of which makes a most excellent sweet-meat. Here is also a variety of dying and other woods proper for house and ship-building.

The greatest part of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz consists of English and Irish catholics, and German Moravians: there is a small number of Danes.

PORTUGUESE ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ON the coast of Brazil are three islands belonging to the Portuguese, viz. Fernando de Norona, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

Fernando de Norona lies in 3 deg. 50 min. south latitude. It is but small, and in a few places only susceptible of tillage, owing to a want of moisture, for through scarcity of water the island is, in general, barren.

There are only three small brooks in the inland parts. Fernando de Norona has two harbours capable of receiving ships of burthen. Here are two forts built of stone, spacious, and well provided with artillery.

The inhabitants consist principally of the troops from Brazil sent thither by way of defence, a few poor families, and some Indians. There are some cattle on the island. Great plenty of fish are taken in the harbours, and turtles abound in the season, which is from December to April. The French made a settlement on this island in 1738, but were forced to retire by the Portuguese, who then sent a colony over, and erected the forts already mentioned.

St. Barbara is situated in 18 deg. 6 min. south latitude. It is small, fertile, but thinly inhabited, and having no capacious harbour, is very little frequented.

The island of St. Catharine lies in latitude 27 deg. 45 min. south. The soil is fertile, producing divers kinds of fruits spontaneously. The woods are very fragrant from the aromatic trees and shrubs with which they abound. Here is a species of black cattle resembling buffaloes; also monkeys, parrots and pheasants. The harbours and bays are stored with fish. The water is good, and found in various parts of the island; but the air is far from being salutary, as the country is overspread with a vapour all the night, and a great part of the morning, which continues till the sun gains strength to dissipate it, or it is dispersed by a brisk sea-breeze.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

TERRA DEL FUEGO.

Arrival. First interview with the natives. Their manner of behaviour. Incidents on ascending a mountain in quest of plants. Second interview with the natives. Description of their persons, dress, extraordinary decorations, food, habitations, furniture, weapons, canoes, animals, birds, fish, insects, plants, government, religion, &c. Description of some parts of Terra del Fuego visited by Captain Cook on his second voyage.

FOR the most accurate description of the island of Terra del Fuego, or the Land of Fires, (so called from a volcano which emits flames visible at a great distance) we have recurred to the account of our celebrated navigator *Captain Cook*, as most particular, authentic and entertaining.

When *Captain Cook*, upon his first voyage, fell in with Terra del Fuego, about 21 leagues to the westward of the Strait of Le Maire, trees were plainly to be distinguished by the assistance of the glasses. As our people came nearer the land, they discovered, in some spots, patches of snow on the sides of the hills, and the sea coasts appeared to be covered with a beautiful verdure. The hills are lofty, and the summits of them quite naked. The soil in the vallies is rich, and of a considerable depth. At the foot of every hill is a brook, the water of which has a reddish hue, but is by no means ill tasted. *Captain Cook* says, that it proved, upon the whole, the best that was taken in during the voyage.

They ranged the coast to the Strait, and had soundings all the way from 40 to 20 fathoms, upon a gravelly and sandy bottom.

The most remarkable lands on Terra del Fuego are, an hill in the form of a sugar loaf, which stands on the west side not far from the sea, and the three hills called the Three Brothers, about nine miles to the westward of Cape St. Diego, the low point that forms the north entrance of the Strait of La Maire.

The island of Terra del Fuego lies between 53 and 55 degrees south latitude.

When

When the ship was brought to anchor in the Bay of Good Success, *Captain Cook* went on shore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, to look for a watering place, and confer with the Indians, several of whom had come in sight. They landed on the star-board side of the bay, near some rocks, which made smooth water and good landing; thirty or forty of the Indians soon made their appearance at the end of a sandy beach, on the other side of the bay, but seeing the number of our people, which was ten or twelve, they retreated. Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander then advanced about 100 yards before the rest, upon which two of the Indians returned, and having advanced some paces towards them, sat down: as soon as they came up, the Indians rose; and each of them having a small stick in his hand, threw it away in a direction both from themselves and the strangers, which was considered as the renunciation of weapons, in token of peace. They then walked briskly towards their companions, who had halted at about fifty yards behind them, and beckoned the gentlemen to follow, which they did. They were received with many uncouth signs of friendship, and in return they distributed among them some beads and ribbons, which had been brought on shore for that purpose, and with which they were greatly delighted.

A mutual confidence and good-will being thus effected, the parties joined, the conversation, such as it was, became general, and three of them accompanied our people back to the ship. When they came on board, one of them (supposed to be a priest) performed much the same ceremonies as are described by *Monf. Bougainville*, which he is of opinion were of a religious nature. When this person was introduced into a new part of the ship, or when any thing he had not seen before caught his attention, he shouted with all his force for some minutes, without directing his voice either to our people or his companions. They eat some bread and beef, but not apparently with much pleasure, though such part of what was given them as they did not eat, they took away with them; but they would not swallow a drop of either wine or spirits: they put the glass to their lips, but having tasted the liquor, they returned it with very strong expressions of disgust.

They appeared to have very little of the passion of curiosity, as they went from one part of the ship to another, and looked at the great variety of new objects that every moment presented themselves, without any expression of wonder or pleasure, for the vociferations of the supposed priest seemed to be neither.

The natives, after having been on board two hours, expressed a desire to go on shore. Mr. Banks accompanied them, landed them in safety, and conducted them to their companions, among whom he remarked the same vacant indifference as in those who had been on board, for as on one side there appeared no eagerness to relate, so on the other there seemed to be no curiosity to hear, how they had been received, or what they had seen. When Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and other gentlemen, with their attendants and servants, set out from the ship, with a few of the men, to penetrate as far as they could into the country, and return at night, the hills, when view'd at a distance, seemed to be partly a wood, partly a plain, and above them a bare rock. Mr. Banks hoped to get through the wood, and made no doubt but that beyond it he should, in a country which no botanist had ever yet visited, find plants which would abundantly compensate his labour.

They entered the wood at a small sandy beach, a little to the westward of the watering place, and continued to ascend the hill through the pathless wilderness for several hours, before they had a near view of the places they intended to visit. Soon after they reached what they had taken for a plain; but to their great disappointment they found it a swamp covered with low bushes of birch, and so interwoven and stubborn,

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that it was necessary to lift the leg over them, which at every step was buried ankle deep in the soil. To aggravate the pain and difficulty of such travelling, the weather, which hitherto had been very fine, much like one of our bright days in May, became gloomy and cold, with sudden blasts of a most piercing wind, accompanied with snow. They pushed forward, however, in good spirits notwithstanding their fatigue; but when they had got about two thirds over this woody swamp, Mr. Buchan, one of Mr. Banks's draughtsmen, was unhappily seized with a fit. This made it necessary for the whole company to halt, and as it was impossible he should go any farther, a fire was kindled, and those who were most fatigued were left behind to take care of him. Mr. Banks and the other gentlemen went on, and in a short time reached the summit. As botanists, they were abundantly gratified by finding a variety of plants, which, with respect to the alpine plants in Europe, are exactly what those plants are, with respect to such as grow in the plain.

The cold was now become more severe, and the snow blasts more frequent; the day also was so far spent, that it was found impossible to get back to the ship before the next morning. To pass the night on such a mountain, in such a climate, was not only comfortable, but dreadful: it could not, however, be avoided, and they were to provide for it as well as possible.

While they were gathering the plants two of the company went back to the draughtsman and the people that were with him, with directions to bring them to an hill, which it was thought lay in a better rout for returning to the wood, and which was therefore appointed as a general rendezvous.

Their whole company assembled at this rendezvous, and though pinched with the cold were in health and spirits. The draughtsman himself had recovered his strength in a much greater degree than could have been expected. Though now near eight o'clock in the morning, it was still day-light, and they set forward for the nearest valley, Mr. Banks himself undertaking to bring up the rear, and see that no straggler was left behind, a caution that soon appeared to be of the utmost importance.

Dr. Solander, who had more than once crossed the mountains which divide Sweden from Norway, well knew that extreme cold produces a sleepiness that is almost irresistible, and therefore conjured the company to keep moving, however painful it might be. His words were, "Whoever sits down will sleep, and whoever sleeps will wake no more." Though thus admonished, the cold became suddenly so intense as to produce the effects most dreaded. Dr. Solander himself was the first who found the inclination, against which he had warned others as irresistible, and insisted upon being suffered to lie down. Mr. Banks in vain remonstrated; he lay down upon the ground though it was covered with snow, and it was with great difficulty his friend could keep him from sleeping. Richmond also, one of the black servants, began to linger, having suffered from the cold in the same manner. Mr. Banks, therefore, sent five of the company, among whom was Mr. Buchan, forward to prepare a fire at the first convenient place; while himself, with four others, remained with the Doctor and Richmond, whom partly by persuasion and entreaty, and partly by force, they brought on; but when they had got through the greatest part of the birch and swamp, they both declared they could go no farther. Mr. Banks again entreated and expostulated, but without effect. When Richmond was told that if he did not go on he would be frozen to death in a short time, he answered, that he desired nothing but to lie down and die. Doctor Solander did not so explicitly renounce his life: he said he was willing to go on, but that he must first take some sleep, notwithstanding his former declaration that whoever slept would wake no more.

As it was impossible to carry them, and there was no remedy, they were both suffered to sit down on the ground,

ground, and, in a few minutes, they fell into a profound sleep.

Soon after some of those who had been sent forward returned with the welcome news that a fire was kindled about a quarter of a mile farther on. Mr. Banks then happily awakened Dr. Solander, who, though he had not slept five minutes, had almost lost the use of his limbs; and the muscles were so shrunk, that his shoes fell from his feet. He consented to go forward with such assistance as could be given him: but all attempts to relieve poor Richmond were ineffectual. Mr. Banks, therefore, left his other black servant, and a seaman who seemed to have suffered least from the cold, to look after him, promising that as soon as two others should be sufficiently warmed, they should be relieved. Mr. Banks, with great difficulty, got the Doctor to the fire; and soon after sent two of the people who had been refreshed, hoping that, with the assistance of those who had been left behind, they would be able to bring Richmond, though it might still be impossible to awake him.

In about half an hour they had the mortification to see the two men return alone. They informed them, that, after the most minute search, they could neither find Richmond, or those who had been left with him; and that though they had repeatedly shouted, no voice had replied. As Mr. Banks was expressing his surprise at this circumstance, he missed a bottle of rum, the company's whole stock, which they concluded to be in the knapsack of one of the absentees. It was supposed that by means of this, Richmond had been roused by the two men that had been left with him, and that having drank too freely of it themselves, they had all rambled from the place where they had been left, in search of the fire, instead of waiting for guides and assistants.

Another fall of snow came on, and continued incessantly for two hours; so that all hope of seeing them again, at least alive, was given up: but in some time, to the general joy of the company at the fire, a shouting was heard at a distance. Mr. Banks, with four others, immediately went out, and found the seaman with just strength enough left to stagger along, and call for assistance. Mr. Banks having sent him immediately to the fire, proceeded, by his directions, in search of the other two, whom he soon after found. Richmond was upon his legs, but not able to put one foot before the other. His companion was lying upon the ground, as senseless as a stone.

The whole company was now called from the fire, and an united attempt was made to carry them to it, but without effect. The night was extremely dark, the snow very deep; so that finding it very difficult to make way through the bushes and bogs themselves (all getting many falls in the attempt) the only alternative was to make a fire on the spot; but the snow that had fallen, and was still falling, besides what was momentarily shaken in flakes from the trees, rendered it equally impracticable to kindle one there, or to bring any part of that which had been kindled in the wood thither. They were reduced to the melancholy necessity of leaving the unhappy wretches to their fate, having previously made them a bed of boughs from the trees, and spread a covering of the same kind over them to a considerable height.

After suffering the region of the cold and snow near an hour and a half, some of the rest began to lose their feeling, and Briscoe, another of Mr. Banks's servants, was so ill, that it was apprehended he must die before he could get to the fire. However, at length they reached the fire, and passed the night in a situation dreadful in itself, and rendered more so by the remembrance of past severities, and the uncertainty of what was to come.

They were twelve in number who had set out in health and spirits. Of these two were supposed to be already dead; a third was so bad, that it was doubtful whether he would be able to proceed in the morning, and a fourth [Mr. Buchan] was in danger of the return

of his fits, from fresh fatigues after so uncomfortable a night. They were a long day's journey distant from the ship, through pathless woods, in which they might be bewildered till overtaken by the ensuing night; and not having prepared for a journey of more than eight or ten hours, their whole stock of remaining provision was a vulture, which they happened to shoot when they were out, and which, if equally divided, would not afford each of them half a meal; and they knew not how much more they might suffer from the cold, as the snow still continued to fall; a dreadful proof of the rigour of the climate, as it was now the midst of summer in this part of the world; and every thing might be dreaded from a phenomenon which, in the corresponding season, is unknown even in Norway and Lapland.

The only object visible at day-break was snow, which seemed to lie as thick upon the trees as upon the ground; and the blasts returned so frequently, and with such violence, that they found it impossible for them to set out. They knew not how long this might last, and had but too much reason to apprehend, that it would confine them in that desolate forest till they perished with hunger and cold.

A dawn of hope succeeded these terrific apprehensions; for, about six o'clock in the morning, they discovered the place of the sun, through the clouds, which were become thinner, and began to break way. Their first care was to know whether the poor wretches they had been obliged to leave among the bushes were yet living: for this purpose they dispatched three of the company, who soon after returned with the melancholy news of their death.

Favourable as appearances had been, the snow continued to fall so thick, as to prevent their setting out for the ship. But about eight o'clock a small regular breeze sprang up, which, with the prevailing influence of the sun, at length cleared the air, and, to their great joy, they soon after saw the snow fall in large flakes from the trees; a certain sign of an approaching thaw.

It was now deemed expedient to examine more minutely into the state of their invalids. Briscoe, though he remained very bad, said he thought himself able to walk; and Mr. Buchan was much better than there was reason to expect. They were now, however, pressed by the calls of hunger, to which every other consideration must give way. They therefore came to an unanimous resolution, before they set forward, to eat their vulture, which was accordingly skinned; and it being thought best to divide it before it was fit to be eaten, it was cut into ten portions, and every man cooked his own as he thought proper.

After this slender meal, which furnished about three mouthfuls each, they prepared to set out; but it was ten o'clock before the snow was so far dissolved as to render their progress practicable. Having proceeded about three hours, they were most agreeably surprised to find themselves upon the beach, and much nearer the ship than they had reason to expect. Upon reviewing their track from the vessel, they perceived that, instead of ascending the hill in a line, so as to penetrate into the country, they had made almost a circle round it. On their arrival on board, they congratulated each other, and were congratulated by the crew in general, with an extasy of joy that can only be conceived by such as have been exposed to equal danger; and *Captain Cook*, to the honour of his humanity, observes, that, as he suffered the greatest anxiety from their not returning in the evening of the day on which they set out, he participated in no small degree of the general joy.

The next time that Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander went on shore, they landed in the bottom of the bay; and while the seamen were employed in cutting brooms, they pursued their great object, the improvement of natural knowledge, and had great success in the collection of shells and plants hitherto unknown. They afterwards visited an Indian town. When they got within a small distance, two of the people came out to meet them,

them, with such state as they could assume. On joining them, they began to hollow as they did on board the ship, without addressing themselves either to the strangers or their companions; and having continued this strange vociferation for some time, conducted them to the town, which was situated on a small hill.

The natives were, in appearance, an ugly, half starved, beardless race. Their colour resembled that of the rust of iron, mixed with oil. They have long black hair. The men are disproportioned in their form. Their stature is from five feet eight, to five feet ten. The women are considerably less. Both sexes have, in general, horrid and dejected aspects. Their language is, in general, guttural, and they express some of their words by a sound exactly resembling that which we make to clear the throat, when any thing happens to obstruct it. Their cloathing consists of the skins of the guanicoe, or seal, thrown over their shoulders, exactly in the same state in which it comes from the animal. A piece of the same skin is drawn over their feet, and gathered about the ankles like a purse; and two or three skins sewed together, so as to make a cloak, which reaches to their knees: but the major part have only one skin, hardly large enough to cover their shoulders; and the lower parts are quite naked. The women have a small flap, as a succedaneum for a fig-leaf. Their dress, in no other respect, differs from that of the men. The children go entirely naked, and are thus inured in their infancy to cold and hardships. But although they are content to be naked, they are very ambitious to be fine. Their faces are painted in various forms: the region of the eye was, in general, white; and the rest of the face adorned with horizontal streaks of red and black; yet scarcely any two were exactly alike. This decoration seems to be more profuse and elaborate upon particular occasions; for the two natives who introduced Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander into the town, were almost covered with streaks of black, in all directions, so as to make a very striking appearance. Both sexes wear bracelets of such beads as they can make themselves of small shells or bones. The women have them both upon their wrists and ankles; the men upon their wrists only; but to compensate for the want of bracelets upon their legs, they wear a kind of fillet of brown worsted about their heads. They set a particular value upon any thing that is red, and prefer beads even to a knife or hatchet.

Their chief food is shell-fish and seals. The former are collected by women, whose business it is to attend at low water, with a basket in one hand, a stick pointed and barbed in the other, and a satchel at their backs. They loosen the limpets, and other fish, that adhere to the rocks, with the stick, and put them into the basket, which, when full, they empty into the satchel. The muscles are of a very fine flavour. When they cannot procure a sufficient supply of these, and the other shell-fish, necessity urges them to seek other resources; but as, from their want of ingenuity, they have so few implements, and those so badly constructed for the purposes of catching and destroying animals, they are frequently reduced to the utmost distress.

Their habitations are of the most rude and artificial structure, consisting of nothing more than a few poles, set up so as to incline towards each other, and meet at the top, forming a kind of cone, which resembles some of our bee-hives. On the weather side they are covered with a few boughs, and a little grass; and on the lee side, about one eighth of the circle is left open, both for a door and a fire-place. Of this kind were huts seen in a contiguous place called St. Vincent's Bay, in one of which the embers of a fire were still remaining.

The furniture seen was, if it may be so called, a little grass, which lay within-side of a hovel, and served for chairs and beds. And of all the utensils and implements, which necessity, or ingenuity, have concurred to produce amongst other savage nations, here were only seen a basket to carry in the hand, a satchel to hang at the back, and the bladder of some beast to hold wa-

ter, which the natives drink through a hole that is made near the top for that purpose.

Their weapons consist of a bow and arrow. Their bows are indifferently formed, but the arrows are extremely neat, being made of wood, and polished to the highest degree. The point, which is of glass or flint, and barbed, is formed and fitted with wonderful dexterity. Some pieces of glass and flint, unwrought, were seen among them; besides rings, buttons, cloth, and canvas, with other European commodities. It was thence inferred, that they must sometimes travel to the northward, as it was many years since any ship had been so far south as this part of Terra del Fuego. Our people observed that they shewed no surprize at their fire-arms, with the use of which they appeared to be well acquainted; for they made signs to Mr. Banks to shoot a seal, which followed the boat as they were going on shore from the ship. They have likewise darts, or rather harpoons, made of bone, and fitted to a staff, with which they kill seals, whales, and other fish.

Their canoes were made of bark, and in each was a fire, over which the poor frozen creatures huddled themselves together. *Captain Cook* observes, that he could not suppose they carried a fire in their canoes for this purpose only, but rather that it may be always ready to remove on shore wherever they land; as, let their method of obtaining a fire be what it may, they could not always be sure of finding fuel that would kindle from a spark. They likewise carried in their canoes large seal hides, which *Captain Cook* judged was to shelter them when at sea, to serve as coverings to their huts on shore, and to be used occasionally as sails.

No quadrupeds were seen in this country, but sea-lions, seals, and dogs. It was deemed remarkable that these dogs barked, which those that are originally bred in America do not. This is adduced as a further proof that the people seen here by our voyagers, either immediately, or remotely, communicated with the Europeans. When Mr. Banks ascended the highest hill, in his expedition through the woods, he saw the foot-steps of a large beast imprinted upon the surface of a bog, though he could not, with any probability, guess of what kind it might be.

The wild fowl are sea-pies, shags, hawks, vultures, ducks, geese, and a large bird called the Port Egmont hen. There were ducks called by our people race-horses, on account of the great swiftness with which they run on the water; for they cannot fly, the wings being too short to support the body in the air. The geese here are much smaller than those of England, but in flavour equally agreeable. They have short black bills, and yellow feet. The gander is quite white; the female is spotted black and white, or grey, with a large spot on each wing. Here are several other aquatic birds, and some land ones, but not many of the latter.

Scarce any fish were seen, nor could our people catch any with their hooks that were fit to eat. The shell-fish were limpets, clams, and muscles, and were found in abundance.

Among the insects, which were not numerous, there were neither gnat or musketo, nor any other species that was either hurtful or troublesome, which, in an uncleared country, was deemed extraordinary. During the snow blasts (which happened every day while our people were here) they hide themselves; and the moment it is fair weather appear again, as nimble and vigorous as the warmest weather could make them.

The labour of the botanists was amply rewarded; for they found a vast variety of plants, the far greater part of which were wholly different from any they had seen or heard of before, but cannot be enumerated here. One was found particularly beneficial: this was the wild celeri, as it contained antiscorbutic qualities, which may be of great benefit to the crews of such ships as may hereafter visit this place. *Captain Cook* ordered large quantities of this plant to be put into the seamen's soup, which, thus medicated, produced the same salutary effects, which seamen generally derive from vegetable diet,

diet, after having been long confined to the use of salt provisions.

The tree which produces the winter's bark is known by its broad leaf, shaped like the laurel, of a light green colour without, and inclining to blue within. The bark is easily stripped with a bone or stick, and its virtues are well known. It may be used for culinary purposes as a spice.

There is also a species of birch tree, the stem of which is from 30 to 40 feet high, and from two to three feet in diameter; so that in case of necessity they would supply a ship with topmasts. They are a light white wood, bear a small leaf, and cleave very strait.

Cranberries grow here on a bushy plant, and have a bitterish taste, rather insipid, but may be eaten either raw or in tarts. They are sometimes eaten by the natives.

The natives do not appear to have among them any government or subordination: no one is more respected than another, yet they seem to live together in the utmost harmony and good fellowship. No appearance of religion is discovered among them, except the noises that have been mentioned, and which are supposed to be a superstitious ceremony, merely because it cannot be referred to nothing else. Upon the whole, these people appear to be the most destitute and forlorn, as well as the most stupid, of all human beings; the very outcasts of nature, who spend their lives in wandering about the dreary wastes where two of our people perished with cold in the midst of summer, with no dwelling but a wretched hovel of sticks and grass, which will not only admit the wind, but the snow and rain; almost naked, and destitute of every convenience that is furnished by the rudest art, having no utensil even to dress their food; yet they are contented. They seem to have no wish for any thing more than they possess; nor did any thing offered them by our voyagers appear acceptable, except beads, as an ornamental superfluity of life.

Captain Cook expresses his surprize that these people do not clothe themselves better, since nature has certainly provided materials. They might line their seal skins cloaks with the skins and feathers of aquatic birds, they might make their cloaks larger, and employ the same skins for other parts of cloathing; for it cannot be supposed they are scarce with them. They were ready enough to part with those they had to our people, which they hardly would have done had they not known where to get more. These people appear doomed to live in one of the most inhospitable climates in the world, without having sagacity enough to provide themselves with such conveniences as may render life, in some measure, more comfortable; and, strange as it may appear, *Captain Cook* remarks, that the cloathing they wore, when he was here in the summer, was scarcely sufficient to prevent their perishing with cold even in that season. What, then, must they feel from the extreme rigour of their climate in the winter? In a word, they are, without exception, the most dejected, miserable and uncouth beings on the face of the earth.

It is worthy of observation, that almost all writers who have mentioned the island of Terra del Fuego describe it as destitute of wood, and covered with snow. In the winter it might be, and those who saw it that season might, perhaps, be easily deceived by its appearance into an opinion that it was destitute of wood. Lord Anson was there in the beginning of March, *Captain Cook* in the beginning of January, (that is the first time) which answers to our July, a circumstance that may account for the difference of his description from that of *Captain Cook*.

Captain Cook, in his second voyage, when he left New Zealand, sailed again to Terra del Fuego, and gives the following description of several parts on the south-west coast, which materially differ from those he had visited before. He observes, that this is the most desolate coast he ever saw. It seemed entirely com-

posed of rocky mountains without the least appearance of vegetation. These mountains terminate in horrid precipices, whose craggy summits spire up to a vast height, so that hardly any thing in nature can appear with a more barren and savage aspect than this part of the country. The inland mountains were covered with snow, but on the sea coast were not.

To a lofty promontory which terminated in two high towers, within which was a hill shaped like a sugar-loaf, *Captain Cook* gave the name of York Minster. Leaving this spot they arrived in Christmas Sound, and came to anchor in an harbour distinguished by the name of the Devil's Bason. It is a very secure place, but nothing could be more gloomy, for the vast height of the rocks which encompassed it deprived great part of the harbour of the meridian sun.

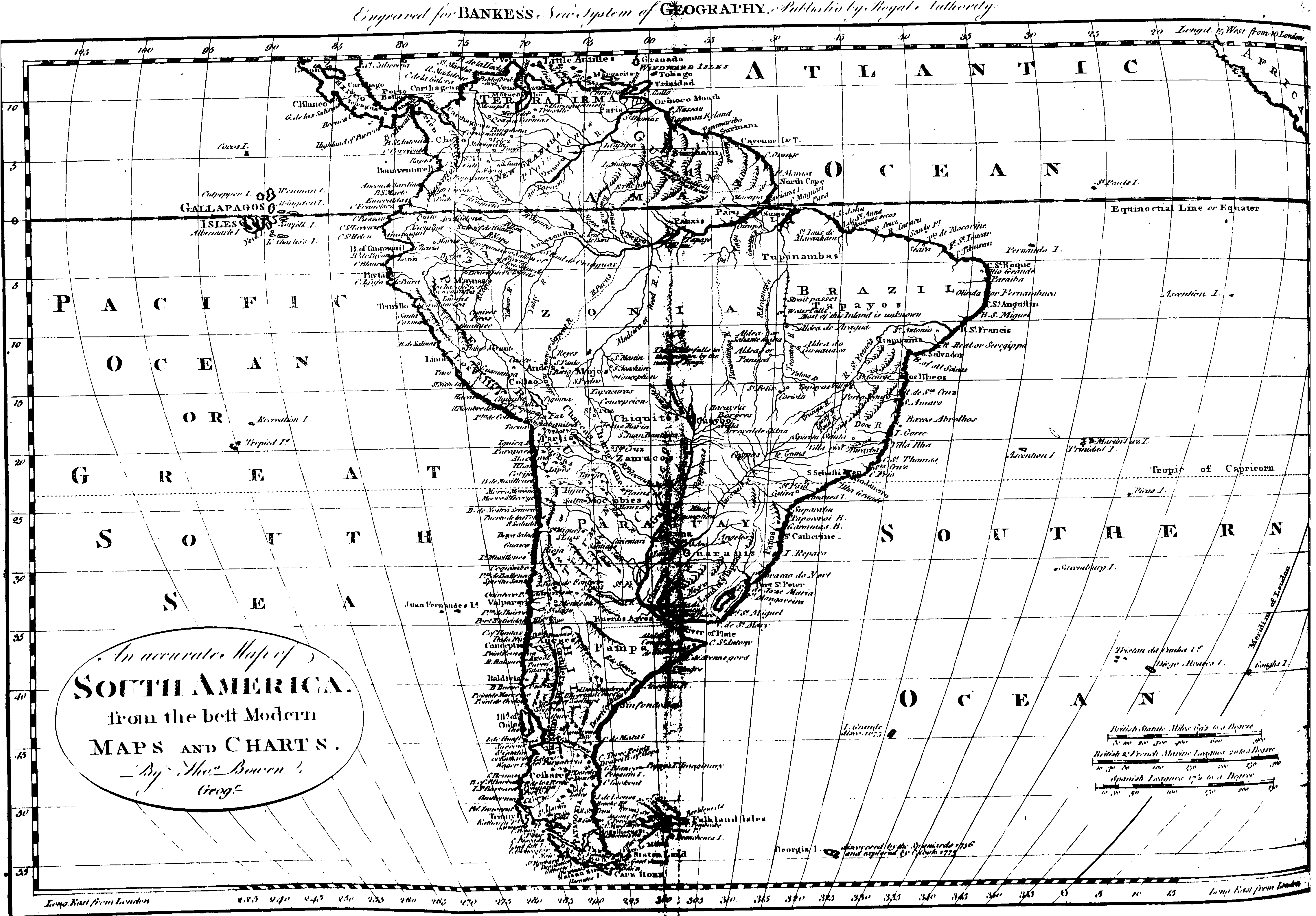
On the shore to the westward were found other harbours, in all of which were fresh water and wood for fuel, but from the little tufts of bushes the whole country appeared as a barren rock, doomed by nature to perpetual sterility. The sea coast is composed of a number of large and small islands. On one of the latter our people, in an expedition up the country, found several huts which had lately been inhabited; near them grew a good deal of cellery, which was gathered and taken on board the ship. They met with little game, one duck, three or four shags, and about that number of rails, or sea pies, being all they got.

The island under which the ship was brought to anchor *Captain Cook* called Shag Island, from observation made of the shags breeding in great numbers in cliffs of the rocks. Our people shot some of the old ones, but could not come at the young ones, which are by far the best eating. They saw some geese, of which they killed three, which proved highly acceptable.

One of the lieutenants sent to explore the east side of the Sound, having informed *Captain Cook* that the land opposite the spot where the ship was stationed was an island, and that without the island lay a cove in which were many geese, two shooting parties went thither the next day. *Captain Cook's* party went by the south-west side. As soon as they got under the island, which obtained the name of Goose Island, they found plenty of shags in the cliffs, and on the south side many geese. It happened to be moulting time, and most of them were on shore for that purpose, and could not fly. There being a very great surf, the parties found much difficulty in landing, and very bad climbing over the rocks when they were landed; so that hundreds of the geese escaped them, some into the sea, and others up into the island. By some means or other they got 62, with which they returned on board, all heartily tired: but the acquisition overbalanced every other consideration, and they sat down with a good appetite to supper on part of what the preceding day had produced. The other party had before brought on board 14 geese; so that the Captain was able, the next day, to make a distribution to the whole crew, which was the more acceptable on account of the approaching festival, this being the 24th of December; and had not Providence thus singularly provided for our voyagers, the Christmas fare must have been salt provision.

During the absence of the Captain, a number of the natives had been along-side the ship, and some on board. They seemed well acquainted with Europeans, and had amongst them some of their knives. On another visit, the 25th, *Captain Cook* found them to be of the same nation as those he had before seen in Success Bay, on his former voyage. They were observed to be very fond of train oil, as they, and every thing they had, smelt of it most intolerably. *Captain Cook* ordered them some biscuit, but they did not appear to be so fond of it as he had been told. They were much pleased when he gave them some medals, knives, and other articles of hardware.

The natives all retired before dinner, and did not wait to partake of the Christmas fare. Indeed, the Captain was of opinion, that they received no invitation,



An accurate Map of
SOUTH AMERICA,
from the best Modern
MAPS AND CHARTS.
By Tho: Bowen, Geog.

British Statute Miles 69 1/2 to a Degree
British & French Marine Leagues 20 to a Degree
Spanish Leagues 17 1/2 to a Degree

tion, and for a very obvious reason, as their filthy persons, and their nauseous stench, were enough to spoil the appetite of any European; and that would have been a most mortifying disappointment, our people not having had such a good fare for some time. Roast and boiled geese, goose-pie, &c. was a treat little known to them; and the cabin guests had yet some Madeira wine left, which was the only article of provision that was better for keeping. *Captain Cook* observed at the close of the day, that their friends in England did not, perhaps, celebrate Christmas more cheerfully than they did in this remote part of the world.

The day following the natives paid our people another visit; and the Captain humanely feeling, when he saw these poor wretches stand trembling and naked on the deck, gave them some baize and canvas to cover themselves.

A party went out again to shoot geese, the weather being fine and pleasant. They proceeded round by the south-side of Goose Island, and picked up, in all 31.

From the festival celebrated at this place, *Captain Cook* gave it the name of Christmas Sound. The en-

trance, which is three leagues wide, is situated in latitude 55 deg. 27 min. south, and longitude 70 deg. 16 min. west, 10 leagues distant from St. Ildefonso Isles, which are the best land-mark for finding the sound. *York Minster, Captain Cook* observes, will hardly be known by a stranger, from any description that can be given of it, because it alters its appearance according to the different situations from which it is viewed. Besides the Black Rock, which lies off the end of Shag Island, there is another about midway, between this and the east shore. He adds, that a copious description of this sound is unnecessary, as very few would derive entertainment or benefit from it.

HAVING thus given an ample description of all the American and West-Indian Islands, with every curious incident we could procure from the latest and most authentic navigators (particularly our celebrated countryman Capt. Cook) we shall now proceed to give a description of the continent of South America, in which, as well as in other parts of the world, we shall insert every new discovery, including all those of our celebrated countryman Captain Cook.

C H A P. XII.

S O U T H A M E R I C A.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

THIS immense track, extending from the Isthmus of Darien to Cape Horn, in form of a triangle, derived the general appellation of Peruviana from the Spaniards; though other nations, particularly the Portuguese, possess a considerable part of it. On one side the Spanish territories reach no farther than from the North Sea to the Equinoctial, and commence again at Riode la Plata on the other, the fine country of Brazil occupying the middle space; and from the River of Plate quite to the Straits of Magellan, the Spaniards rather claim than possess a real dominion.

Such a profusion of wealth has accrued both to the Spaniards and Portuguese from their respective territories in this part of the globe, that they seem to have no farther inducement to extend either their conquests or discoveries. From this cause a prodigious expanse of interior parts, comprehending near 2000 miles from east to west, and about 1000 from north to south, remains unexplored, and consequently in possession of the natives; though, from the produce of those parts which are known, there is the greatest reason to suppose, they abound in the most choice and valuable commodities, as gold, silver, gems, drugs, fruits, cattle, corn, and various other articles.

The Spanish dominions in South America are under two governors, styled viceroys and captain-generals, subordinate to whom are several audiences, as those of Panama, Terra-Firma, Chuquisaca, Quito, Lima, Los Charcas, and Chili, confiding each of a president and a certain number of counsellors, appointed by the king, with the inferior officers dependent on them.

Brazil, the most important part of the Portuguese dominions in south America, (as they possess besides only two or three single islands,) for the better regulation of government, is divided into 15 provinces, called Capitaneas, or Captainries, the whole forming a principality, which gives title to the presumptive heir of

the crown of Portugal. There are only six of these captainries annexed to the crown. These are offices of great honour and profit, and therefore objects of pursuit among the first grandees of Portugal. They are, as in other states, presented to the favourites of the monarch, and productive of good or ill, in proportion to the character and disposition of those on whom they are conferred.

Those parts of the continent of South America belonging to the French and Dutch, are very inconsiderable, when compared with the opulent and extensive dominions of the Spaniards and Portuguese.

As we proceed in our description of South America, we shall point out the nations to which the various parts respectively belong, with every particular worthy of description. But previous to this, it may not be improper to insert the following Table, shewing, at one view, the respective parts into which the whole is divided.

TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.				
Countries.	Length.	Bread.	Chief Cities, &c.	Belonging to.
Terra-Firma	1400	700	Panama	Spain
Peru	1500	500	Lima	
Paraguay	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	Spaniards and Jesuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	Spain
Terra Mapellanica, or Patagonia	700	300	—	It. Natives
Brazil	2500	700	S. Sebastian	Portugal
Amazonia	1200	400	—	It. Natives
Guyana	780	400	Surinam & Cayenne	Dutch & French

C H A P. XIII.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

TERRA-FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

THIS province is situated between the equator and 12 deg. north latitude, and between 60 and 82 deg. west longitude, being about 1400 miles in length, and 700 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by Guiana; on the west by New Spain and the Pacific Ocean; and on the south by Peru, and the country of the Amazons. It derived the name of Castile del Oro, or the Golden Coast, from the great quantity of gold it contained.

The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra-Firma Proper, joins North and South America. The climate of Terra-Firma, especially in the northern divisions, is very sultry during the whole year. From the month of May, to the end of November, there is an almost continual succession of thunder, rain, and tempest. The excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a deluge. From the middle of December, to the middle of April, the rains cease, and the weather becomes more agreeable.

The soil of this country is very different, the inland parts being rich and fertile, and the coasts sandy and barren. The productions are Indian corn, balms, gums and drugs, several sorts of fruit, sugar, tobacco, various kinds of dying woods, precious stones, particularly emeralds and sapphires, venison, and game. Great numbers of cows and hogs are fed in the meadows. The mountains abound with tigers, and numbers of other wild beasts. In the forests and woods are monkeys of various colours and sizes. The flesh of them, in general, but that of the red in particular, is highly valued by the Negroes; and it is said that, in many places, not only the Negroes, but the Creoles make no scruple of eating them.

Many birds are found in this country, whose plumage is particularly beautiful and brilliant. But the most remarkable is the toucan, or preacher. The bill of this bird is variegated with all those bright colours which adorn the plumage of other birds. It is called the preacher from its custom of perching on the top of a tree, and making a noise resembling ill articulated sounds. The rivers, sea, and lakes, abound with a variety of fish.

The Isthmus of Darien swarms with reptiles and insects of every species. Many of them are baneful to the inhabitants, and others objects of curious and philosophical speculation.

The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobé, the cedré, and the mania. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. Such is the malignity of this tree, that if a person sleeps under it his body swells, and he is racked with the severest tortures. The beads, from immet, always avoid it. In the woods about Carthagena is a species of willow, particularly known on account of its fruit, called Habellade Carthagena, or the bean of Carthagena. This bean contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and very bitter. This kernel is an excellent remedy for the bites of vipers and serpents, which are very common throughout this country. Those who frequent the woods, therefore, usually take a little of this kernel to carry, and then repair to their work, without the least apprehension of danger.

There were once a number of gold mines in the country, which are now in a great measure exhausted.

Terra-Firma is a very mountainous country. The Firma Proper, in particular, consists of prodigious high mountains and deep vallies, flooded more than half the year. The mountains in the province of Carthagena and St. Martha, according to Dampier, are the highest in the world, being seen at sea 22 leagues. From these run a chain of hills, of almost equal height, quite through South America, as far as the strait of Magellan, called the Cordilleros des Andes. The province of Venezuela, and the district of the Canacas, are likewise very mountainous. Some of the mountains in the province of Popayan contain volcanoes; but towards the shore of the Pacific Ocean the country is low and marshy. The whole is watered by a great number of rivers, the principal of which is that of Orinoko; and here are many gulphs, bays, &c. The provinces of this country are thus divided:

Terra-Firma Proper, which lies in the form of a crescent about the Bay of Panama, being the strait which joins South and North America, is about 1000 length, but only 60 in breadth, where the strait is narrowest. It is tolerably fruitful, and abounds in gold and pearls. The principal places are,

Panama, which, in 1737, was entirely consumed by fire, but has since been rebuilt in a neat, though not magnificent, manner. It is strongly fortified and garrisoned, and the walls mounted with large cannon. Here is the residence of the governor of the province, and the seat of a royal audience, with a convenient harbour, well secured against storms by a number of surrounding islands. At the bottom of the strait are great numbers of pearls, and the oysters are exceedingly precious in which they are found. This kind of oyster is very beneficial to the inhabitants of all the islands of the bay; and there are few persons of substance in Panama, who do not employ a part of their time in fishing at least. The slaves thus employed are called oyster swimmers, and capable of holding their breath a great time. During the season, eight, ten, or twelve of them set out, under the command of an overseer, in a boat, from the islands, where they have built their lodgings, to such parts of the bay as is best to produce pearls, and where the depth of water is not above 10, 12, or 15 fathoms. Here they throw an anchor; and the negroes, laying a rope round their bodies, and the other end to the boat, take with them a small weight, to prevent sinking, and plunge into the water. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyster, which they put in the left arm; the second they hold in their right hand, and the third in their mouth. With these three they breathe, and sometimes another in their mouth, they come up, and put the pearl in a bag. When they have relieved themselves, they descend again, and thus continue till they have collected a considerable number of their booty. Every one of the divers is obliged to give to his master a certain number of pearls, and when they have collected a great number of oysters, they go on shore, and there they are made to open them, and the pearls are taken out. The pearls are then sold to the merchants, and the divers are paid for their labour. The pearls are of various sizes, and are much valued by the Europeans. The pearls are also used by the natives for ornaments, and for making necklaces, and bracelets, and other articles of dress. The pearls are also used by the natives for making beads, and for making other articles of dress. The pearls are also used by the natives for making necklaces, and bracelets, and other articles of dress. The pearls are also used by the natives for making beads, and for making other articles of dress.

them, or run against them so violently, as either to kill, or crush them against the bottom. Every negro, to defend himself against these animals, carries with him a sharp knife, with which the fish being struck, immediately flies off. The officers keep a watchful eye on these voracious creatures, and, on discovering them, shake the ropes fastened to the bodies of the negroes, that they may be upon their guard. Many, on the diver's being in danger, have thrown themselves into the water, with the like weapon, to assist in his defence: but all their dexterity and precaution have frequently not been sufficient to protect the diver from being devoured by these fish, or losing a leg or an arm by their bite.

Porto-Bello is situated close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain, which surrounds the harbour. This harbour is so large, deep, and safe, that Columbus gave it the name of Porto Bello, or Fine Harbour. The governor is always a military officer, subordinate to the president of Panama. The town is but thinly inhabited, owing to its noxious air, and contains not more than 200 wooden houses, which most of the inhabitants let when the galleons are here, and make any temporary shift for themselves. At the east end of the town there is a quarter called Guinea, where all the negroes, and many of the mulattoes reside. During the fair, while the fleet is here, the place becomes extremely populous, and barracks are erected for the ships' crews, but taken down again after the departure of the galleons. Formerly the fair was not limited to any particular time; but as a long stay here was found to be very prejudicial to the health of the traders, an order was made by the king of Spain, that it should not continue above 40 days. Once the English were allowed to send a ship hither annually, which turned to very good account; but they have long since been abridged of that privilege.

In the year 1739 the gallant Admiral Vernon, with six ships only, took this place, demolished the forts, and dismantled the fortifications.

The surrounding country is full of forests and mountains. One of the latter, named Capira, which is extremely high, serves as a barometer to the people; for by the appearance of the clouds on its summit, they can prognosticate what weather will ensue, the changes of which are very sudden, and frequent. The heat here is excessive, the torrents of rain impetuous, and the storms of thunder and lightning dreadful. So that not only the people die very fast, but the cattle brought from distant places soon lose their flesh, and become scarce eatable.

In 1695 a Scotch company having obtained, from the English government, permission to trade to Africa and the East and West Indies, planted a colony on the Isthmus of Darien, near the north-west point of the gulph. Here a fortress was erected, called New Edinburgh, and the circumjacent district was termed Caledonia. The Indian princes were pleased at this, as they thought, by the help of the Scotch, to expel the Spaniards. For some time the colony flourished, but at last the company was ruined, by the jealousy of the English East India Company, and the remonstrances of the court of Madrid.

Cartagena produces some valuable gums, helms, and skins, but no mines of gold or silver, nor any great quantity of corn or cattle.

Cartagena, the metropolis of the province, is not so much an opulent city, but a strong fortress, situated on the declivity of a hill. The harbour lies between the point of the main, and the entrance to the Gulf of Darien. The other passage, called Bocachica, is lower, and is shut up by an order from the court of Spain, but a stack made upon the town in the year 1741, by Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth. There is communication, by a narrow bridge, with a large suburb, called Extradura, which is on another island, which is joined to the town by a causeway of the same material. The town is built on the declivity of the city and suburbs, and contains

the male population, and contains the principal church, and the principal houses, the garden, and the principal houses, and the principal houses. The city is built on a hill, and the streets are broad, and the houses are built of stone or brick, with balconies and lattices of wood, which is more suitable in this climate than iron, the latter being much corroded by the acrimonious quality of the air. The city is populous, though most of the inhabitants are descendants of the Indian tribes, but it is by no means opulent, compared with many other cities in South America, the country producing no mines.

At a small distance from the suburb of Navegante, on a hill, is a fort called Llanero, commanding the city and suburbs, and affording a very extensive and agreeable prospect over the sea and land.

The government of Cartagena was not given to any other till the year 1739, when the governor of Granada was appointed. It extends about 100 leagues from west to east, and 35 from south to north, containing several fruitful valleys, called the valley of the Indians, in which are many settlements of Europeans, Spanish Creoles, and Indians. The Bay of Cartagena is the first place in America at which the galleons touch. The climate is hot and unhealthy; and, among other diseases, the black vomit and leprosy are particularly fatal to Europeans. The guinea-worm is very troublesome, as it occasions painful tumors in the muscles of the legs and thighs; and another insect, peculiar to this country and Peru, is still more dreadful: it is called pique, and, being extremely small, is scarce visible to the naked eye. It breeds in the dust, and infiltrates itself into the soles of the feet, giving occasion to the pain, and frequently attended with imminent danger.

The province of Santa Martha is 200 miles long, and 140 broad, very mountainous, but produces gold, jewels, marble, salt, &c. The capital of the same name, on a branch of the Rio Grande, is the seat of a bishop, and residence of a governor.

Rio de la Hacha is a pleasant and fertile province. It has a pearl fishery, and mines of silver and copper. The capital, which gives name to the province, contains nothing remarkable.

Venezuela, which includes the district of Caracas, lies on the North Sea. It is populous and fertile, but rather labours under a scarcity of water. The capital of the same name is the seat of a bishop, and residence of a governor; and Caracas is a populous inland town.

New Andalusia, including the districts of Carabobo, and Paria, is fertile, and rich in gold, drugs, and medicinal plants, sugar, tobacco, and several sorts of valuable timber. Comana, or New Cordoba, is the capital, but the town of St. Thomas is superior to it.

New Granada, formerly called Santa Fe, and now called Rio del Oro, is an inland province, of considerable extent, beautifully diversified with mountains and valleys. The mountains contain gold, silver, and copper. The valleys produce corn, cotton, roots, and other vegetables. It is a granary of the country, and produces several sorts of valuable commodities. The capital is Santa Fe de Bogota, the capital of the province, but of all the provinces, and the most fertile. In 1792, of the royal treasury, and the most fertile. It is a populous, opulent, and valuable city, situated on the banks of a lake, and is the most fertile. It is a granary of the country, and produces several sorts of valuable commodities.

Orinoco is a great river, and is the most fertile. It is a granary of the country, and produces several sorts of valuable commodities.

The province of Guayana is a fertile and populous province, and is the most fertile. It is a granary of the country, and produces several sorts of valuable commodities.

cassock without folds, descending to the knees, a large cape, and sleeves open at both sides. It has button-holes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the better sort are made of embroidered stuffs. The handicrafts wear a blue stuff, of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of distinction are singular, in wearing a kind of trowsers of white cotton, which descends from the waist to the middle of the leg. The barbers here are distinguished by the fineness of their linen, and elegance of their dress in general. They have shirts without sleeves, about the neck they have a kind of black collar, with a lace of four fingers breadth, which forms a sort of fringe that falls on the stomach and shoulders. They wear shoes with gold or silver buckles, but no stockings.

The women wear the Faldelin, a species of stays, or rather jumps. A shift which descends only to the waist. A bay mantle which encloses the upper part of the body, consisting of an ell and a half of that stuff, and their whole dress is ornamented with rich laces. The dress of the labouring women is not distinguishable from that of the ladies, but by its inferiority, the fashion being the same. A Mongrel, or Creole, is known by the superiority of his habit and his ingenuity. The Indian peasant wears a bay mantle; and the common native Indian a piece of sackcloth fastened over the shoulders by two pins.

There is another species of Indians in this country, of rather a fair complexion, delicate habit, and smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. They are particularly distinguished by their large, weak, blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, from which they are called moon-eyed Indians.

The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

The cruelties and ravages committed by Pedrorias and others, who first reduced these provinces under the crown of Spain almost exceed belief. Pedrorias and his successors did not destroy less in Terra Firma only than 800,000 people; and plundered the country of prodigious quantities of gold. The governor and his officers, every day, invented new torments to make the Indians discover their gold; some they racked, others they burnt by inches, till they expired in torments. Many thousands were destroyed on the coast of New-Andalusia, by being obliged to dive for pearls beyond their strength. They kept packs of great mastiffs on purpose to hunt and tear in pieces the Indians; and would often kill one without any offence given.

The greatest prince of the country, named Bagota, from whom the capital city was afterwards called Santa Fe de Bagota, after he had brought in a prodigious quantity of gold, by dispatching expresses to every part of his dominions, was so tortured to make him produce more, that he expired under the hands of his merciless persecutors.

We shall, for the entertainment of our readers, conclude our description of Terra Firma with an account of the famous expedition to Panama, made by the celebrated Buccaneer captain, (afterwards Sir Henry) Morgan.

This enterprising genius, who was a gentleman of a good family in Wales, set sail from Jamaica, on this expedition, with nine sail of ships and sloops, well manned with active and bold sailors. Arriving on the coast of Terra Firma he let his people understand that his first design was against Porto Bello; some of them objecting that his force was too small to reduce so important a fortress, he boldly replied, "If our numbers are small our hearts are great; and the fewer we are the greater will be our share of the plunder." He soon made himself master of a castle which defended the harbour, and this capture was succeeded by the surrender of the city, but the governor, and many of the principal people, having retired into another castle with their treasure, effects, the church plate, &c. kept

up a brisk fire on the Buccaneers. This occasioned Morgan to hit upon the following stratagem. He seized all the friars and nuns in the town, and compelling them to march before him up to the very wall, he obliged them to fix the scaling ladders; in doing which many were killed by the fire of their friends, as well as enemies, crying for mercy in vain: at length the Buccaneers scaled the walls, took the place by storm, and afterwards employed 15 days in removing the immense treasures on board his ship. He then obliged the governor to procure 100,000 pieces of eight, which had been carried off, in order to ransom the town from being burnt.

Having intelligence that the governor of Panama was in full march against him, he possessed himself of a difficult passage, and there totally defeated him.

Morgan now dismantled the forts, took some of the best artillery on board his ships, and returned to Jamaica, it being computed that the Buccaneers brought back with them 250,000 pieces of eight, besides a great deal of other rich effects; but the seamen soon consumed every shilling that came to their share, and made money more plentiful in that island than ever it had been before.

The captain, having gained great reputation by the Porto-Bello expedition, the seamen crowded to be admitted to serve under him: having assembled 1,200 of them, therefore, he sailed to Tortuga, a little island near the northern coast of Cuba, where he was joined by a great many seamen more, to the number of 2,000, whom he employed in hunting and salting up beef, in the island of Hispaniola, to victual his fleet; and being now ready to sail, he divided his fleet, consisting of 37 ships, into two squadrons, constituting admirals and other officers, to whom he gave commissions to commit hostilities against the Spaniards, declaring them enemies to the crown of England, and caused articles to be signed by his officers, wherein every man's share of the prizes which should be taken was specified, reserving an hundredth part of them only to himself.

Their first enterprize was against the island of Providence, which they retook from the Spaniards again; and while the fleet lay here he sent Brodley, his vice-admiral, with four ships and 400 men, to take the castle of Chagre, at the mouth of the river of that name, which they fortunately reduced, though it was very obstinately defended. Morgan, receiving advice of the success of his squadron at Chagre, followed them with the rest of his fleet, and leaving a garrison in the castle, selected 1200 men, with whom he marched over the isthmus towards Panama, and the country being destroyed before him, his men underwent incredible hardships, as well for want of provisions, as from the badness of the roads, which lay over rocks, mountains and morasses, almost impassable, and at length was obliged to fight his way through an army, which the governor of Panama had assembled to oppose him. Ascending a mountain on the ninth day they obtained a view of the South Sea, and the bay of Panama, which they were so overjoyed that they fell on their knees, in spite of all danger, threw up their caps, beat their drums and trumpets, and shouted as if they had already masters of the city, and encamped close to the town, for they had no room with them, except in the town, designing to attack the place the next morning, but were prevented by the governor, who sent out against them at the head of four regiments of foot and two squadrons of horse, with whom Morgan was engaged, and within two hours defeated, when he killed 600 of them, men dead upon the field, and the loss on the side of the Buccaneers was also considerable; however, following the enemy to the heels, they forced the wall without making any breach in them, for indeed they had no artillery, and became masters of the place that day. Morgan, considering that his men would be forced to live in the town, that they would get drunk, now they were in plentiful quarters, gave order that all the wine should

soned, and proceeded to place guards at all the avenues to the city to secure his conquest, when on a sudden the whole city appeared in flames, having been set on fire in several places at the same instant; which though some of Morgan's enemies charge on him, it is certain he gave orders for extinguishing it; others suggest that the Spaniards fired it themselves, to prevent the treasures laid up there falling into the hands of the Buccaneers; nor can it be supposed that Morgan should burn the town before he had possessed himself of the plunder, and destroy the rich prize he had obtained with so much hazard and difficulty. But, however that was, it is generally agreed that the city continued burning several days, and very few houses were left standing. They related that 2000 of the houses inhabited by the principal people were built with cedar, and that there were 5000 more of the inferior tradesmen, with several beautiful churches and monasteries in the place, before this accident, it being the magazine of all the treasures of Chili and Peru, which were annually laid up here, in order to be transported to various parts of Europe.

The soldiers afterwards found great quantities of plate and money melted down among the ruins, and more hid in wells, or buried, and took 200,000 pieces of eight out of a ship that lay at anchor in the harbour.

Morgan having remained near a month at Panama, and collected the ransom his prisoners had agreed to pay, loaded 200 boats with the treasure he had gotten, and returned to Ventade Cruz, where he put it into boats, and sent it down the river Chagre to the castle of that name: but the Buccaneers of the French and Dutch nations murmured, that there did not more than 200 pieces of eight fall to the share of each private man, and charged their admiral with concealing the most valuable part of the prizes; whereupon the designers left him, and sailed to the islands of Tortuga and Hispaniola to join their countrymen; and Morgan, after he had blown up the castle of Chagre, and the fortifications about it, returned to Jamaica with the rest of his fleet.

SECTION II.

P E R U .

THIS country was discovered and conquered by the Spaniards. It does not seem to have been known by any general name when they arrived here; but it is said that the discoverers, meeting with one of the natives on the coast, and demanding what country it was, the Indian answered Peru, or Beru, that is, What do you say? The Spaniards, apprehending he understood them right, concluded the name of the country was Peru, by which it has been called from that time to the present. It is governed by a viceroy, whose jurisdiction likewise extends over Chili, Tucuman and Paraguay.

Peru is situated between the equator and 25 deg. of south latitude, and extends from 60 to 75 deg. of west longitude, being about 1500 miles in length and 500 in breadth. It is bounded by Terra Firma on the north, on the east by the mountains called Cordilleros des Andes, on the south by Chili, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

Many rivers rise in the Andes, and run through this country, among which are the Grande, the Oroonoko and the Amazonas, supposed to be the largest river in the world either with regard to the length of its course or the depth of its water.

There are some waters in Peru, which, in their course, turn into stone; and here are also fountains of bituminous matter called Coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by the natives for the same purposes.

Towards the Pacific Ocean the coast is high. Thirty miles from thence within land a chain of mountains extends a considerable way, and about 30 miles farther

are the Cordilleros des Andes, the upper parts of which are continually covered with snow, and the air is so subtle as to be unfit for respiration. It never rains in those parts of this country which lie contiguous to the sea coast, except near the equator. The whole is well watered, the low grounds are fertile, and this is the only country between the tropics that produces wine.

In one part of Peru are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, having their summits continually covered with snow. In the inland parts, and by the banks of rivers, the soil is in general fertile; but along the sea coast it is a barren sand.

The most remarkable animals of this country are, the Peruvian sheep, called pacos or huancui. They are of the bigness of a stag, and resemble a camel. The body is covered with a coarse kind of wool: they are very tractable, and were formerly the only beasts of burthen among the Indians. Their flesh is very good meat, and esteemed as innocent as a chicken. It is as white as veal, pleasant to the palate, and easy of digestion. Their height is from four feet to four and a half. They generally carry an hundred weight; and walk, holding their heads up, with wonderful gravity and majesty, and so regular a pace, that no beating will make them alter it. At night it is impossible to make them move with their burthen; they lie down till it is taken off, and then go to graze. Their common food is a sort of grass, somewhat like a small rush, with which all the mountains are covered. These sheep eat little, and never drink; so that they are very easily kept. The Spaniards use them in the mines to carry the ore to the mills. The vicunas (another species of sheep) are shaped much like pacos, only they are smaller and lighter. The Spaniards call them Indian goats, because they resemble that animal. Their wool is very fine, and much valued: besides, the bezoar stone, which is said to expel poison, and to perform many great cures, is found in them. Their deer are much less than ours. They have not many wild beasts; and such as they have are not very fierce or dangerous. The cattle imported from Europe are much increased; and most of them run wild, and are hunted, like other game. The Peruvians have no tame fowl, but the nuana, which somewhat resembles the duck, but is much larger.

A very valuable article of their produce and commerce is the quinquina, or Jesuits Bark, which grows in the mountains of Potosi, and also in the province of Quito. It is about the size of a cherry-tree, the leaves round and indented, and it bears a long reddish flower. The most useful tree here is called magney, which at once supplies a delicious drink, honey, vinegar, timber, hemp and thread, the two last being made from the leaves, stalks, &c. Needles are made of the prickles, and the fruit is converted into a kind of soap. Rhubarb, tamarinds, sarsaparilla, dragon's blood, storax, guaiacum, bananas, melons, &c. are other vegetable productions of Peru. Here are European corn and fruits in plenty, but the principal part of the bread is made of cassava root; but most of that balsam which bears the name of Peru comes in fact from Mexico.

That valuable article of the commerce of this country cochineal was formerly supposed to be the fruit or seed of some particular plant, but it is now ascertained to be an insect. It is bred on a plant called Opuntia, or Prickly Pear, which consists wholly of thick succulent oval leaves joined end to end, and spreading out on the sides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit resembles a fig; this is full of a crimson juice, and to this juice the cochineal owes its colour. When the rainy seasons come on those who cultivate this plant cut off the heads which abound most with such insects as are not arrived at their full growth, and preserve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. These branches, though separated from their parent stock, preserve their juice for a long time, and this enables the insect not only to live till the rains are over, but to grow to its full size, and

and be in readiness to bring forth its young as soon as the inclemency of the season is past. When this time comes on, they are brought out, and placed upon the proper plants, disposed in little nests of some mossy substance. By the enlivening influence of the fresh air, they bring forth in three or four days at farthest, when the young, scarce bigger than a mite, run about with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately peopled. What is singular, this animal, so lively in its infancy, quickly loses all its activity, and, attaching itself to the least exposed, and most succulent, part of the leaf, clings there without ever moving. It is also remarkable, that it does not, at least in any visible manner, injure the plant, but extracts its nourishment by means of its proboscis, through the fine teguments of the leaves. The males, of this species of insect, differ greatly from the females, than which they are smaller. The males, in fact, are of no value, the females only being gathered for use. The value of the drug chiefly consists in the method of killing and drying the insect. The first is by dipping the basket, into which they are gathered, into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the sun; the second by drying them in ovens; and the third by drying them on cakes of maize, which are baked upon flat stones. The last is the worst kind. One admirable quality of this drug is, that, though it belongs to the animal creation, it never decays. Without any other care than having been put into a box, some have been known to keep 60, and even an 100 years, and retain their quality. It is used in dying all the several kinds of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. Gold is found in every province of Peru; and there are abundance of silver mines, of which the most rich are those of Potosi, discovered in 1545. The quicksilver mines, near Lima, were discovered in 1567; and in 1571 the Spaniards first began to refine their silver with mercury.

The natives of this empire, in general, acknowledge the dominion of Spain, and appear (at least outwardly) to profess the Roman Catholic persuasion. They are, however, very much oppressed by the Spaniards in general.

The native Peruvians are of a middling stature, have olive complexions, and black hair. When they were first conquered, their manufactures were woollen and cotton cloths, which they wove and dyed with all manner of colours; but none were permitted to wear a variegated garment, except those of the blood royal. Their carpets were made of the wool of their sheep, or fine goats hair; and their hammocks of cotton or network. Their carpenters tools were principally hatchets, made of copper or flints. Their stone-cutters tools were sharp flints or pebbles. Pullies, and other hinges, were entirely unknown to them: yet, under all these disadvantages, they raised strong and magnificent edifices. Their needles were thorns or fine bones, and their threads the sinews of animals, or the fibres of plants, or of the bark of a certain tree. Scissars they had none; and their knives were flint or copper. Their combs were made of long thorns, set on each side of a piece of cane, which served for the back of the comb: and the razors they shaved their heads with were no better than sharp flints; in which operation the person suffered so much, that there was nothing the Spaniards carried over more acceptable to them than the razors and scissars. They had no looking-glasses, but, instead of them, the Peruvian ladies made use of a round plate of polished brass or copper; and in this the natives of the East Indies agree with them, having no other mirrors at this day than what they get of the Europeans. The several nations were distinguished by their head-dresses; some wearing a kind of turban of cotton cloth, others a single piece, others a kind of hats, and others caps in the form of a sugar loaf, &c.

The blackness of the negro slaves, that the Spaniards brought with them, struck them greatly. They could not believe it to be natural, having never seen a black in America. They desired the Spaniards, therefore,

to let them make experiment, and try if they could not wash off the black paint, as they took it to be.

The Peruvians possess a quickness of wit, and strength of judgment. Such of them as have had the advantage of masters, since the arrival of the Spaniards, have generally made an extraordinary proficiency. When the Spaniards first appeared among them, they acknowledged one Almighty Being, maker of heaven and earth, whom they called *Pacha-Camac*, i. e. The God of the Universe. The next object of adoration was the Sun; the priests of which, who officiated at Cusco, were of blood royal. Besides their festivals celebrated every month, they had four other grand ones, the principal of which was celebrated in June, in honour of their first Inca Manca Capac.

The meanest of the Europeans assume state as soon as they find themselves transported among the Indians, blacks, mulattoes, mestizoes, &c. Any good or generous actions performed by them are the effects of their vanity and imaginary nobility.

The Creolians bear a great antipathy to the native Spaniards, of which one reason is supposed to be, because they see those strangers in possession of the prime places of the state. In their outward behaviour they affect great gravity, like the European Spaniards, to whom they are not inferior in wit and genius, acuteness and understanding, but less active and hardy.

Effeminacy and sloth seem to be peculiar to the inhabitants of this country; for it is observed, that those who have been bred to labour in Spain, grow idle here in a short time, like the Creolians. They are sober, to wine, but eat a great deal, and after an indecent manner, sometimes all out of the same dish, and without forks.

The Creolians freely sacrifice to the passion of love. Bastards are as much regarded here as the lawfully begotten children, provided they are owned by the father, and there is no disgrace inherent to that birth.

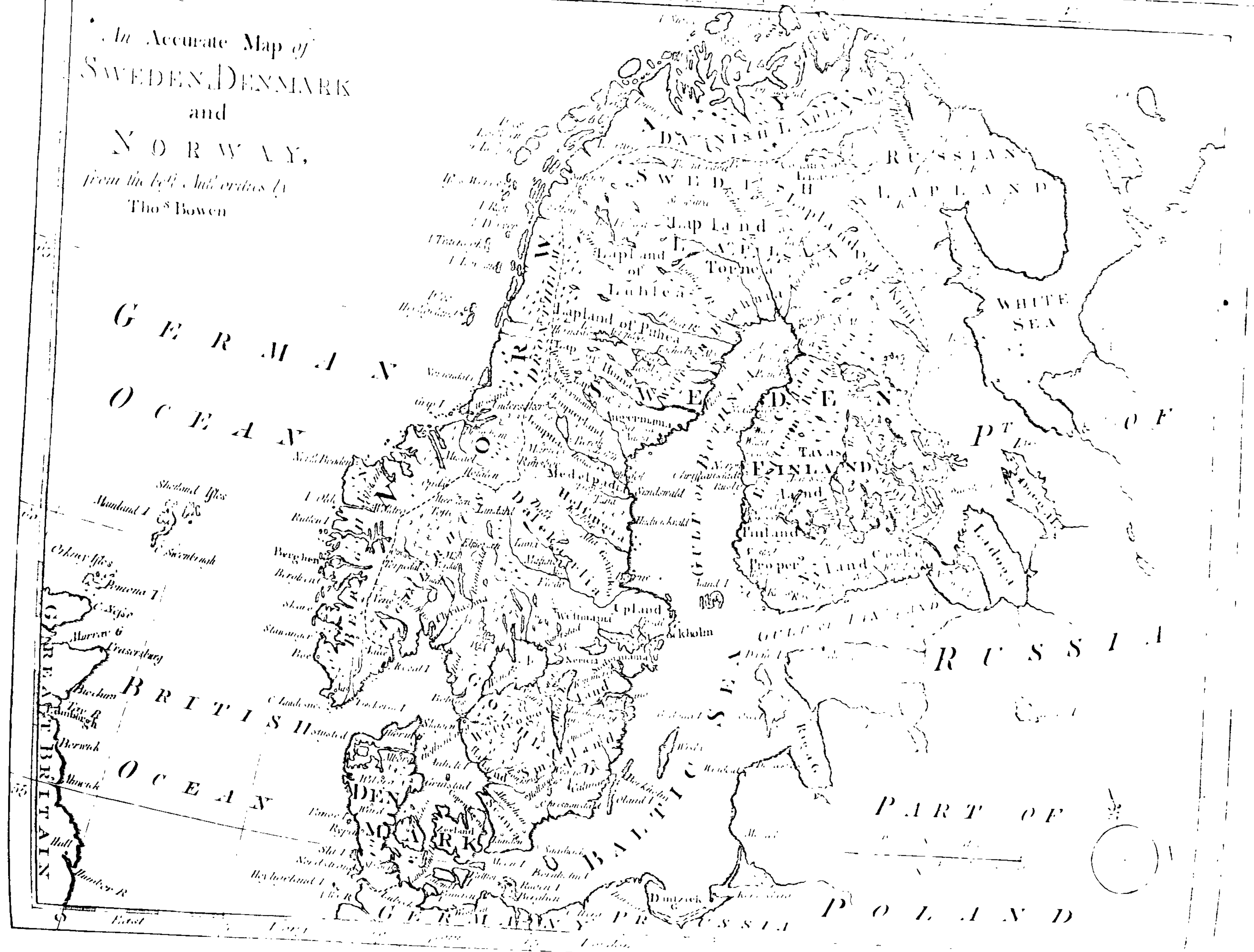
The Creolian women, though not under the restrictions of the Spanish women, seldom go abroad in the day-time; but at night they pursue their pleasures with great freedom, and are fond of intriguing, though they usually conduct their gallantries under the thickest veils.

Some of the Peruvian barks, or vessels, are made like double canoes joined together, with posts that pass cross-ways, and being covered with a skin, serve the boatmen to sit upon. Others are constructed in the form of rafts, with a large sail made of matting, and a rudder at one end, near which there is a fire place and hearth, and a fire always alight. Between the two there is a kind of cabin on the deck; and the men themselves join at the top, and support not only the sail, but a little pendant.

They supply the place of bridges, in many parts of Peru, by contrivances, which they call *tarabites*. These are ropes or thongs of leather, extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened to piles or posts fixed in the earth. A hammock, with two loops, is put to these, in which a man may lie at ease, and attendants who attend on the side from whence he is to pass, give him a push, which carries him on to the other side with great velocity: from the middle those on the opposite side pull the hammock by ropes fastened to the sides, so that the person thus gets over in a few instants. For the passage of horses or mules, there are two ropes at a small distance from each other. The animal being guided by the attendants, is suspended upon a flat piece of wood, between the two ropes, to which he is fastened by girths, and is pulled over by ropes. Some beasts will go over very easily, but others are forced to have their legs tied. In some places the *tarabites* are made of skins spread all over the river, for people to walk upon, which is held up by a rope on each side, which secures them in the middle of railing, and enables them to pass the unfathomable without any danger.

Peru contains two audiences, those of Lima and La Charcos, or La Plata.

An Accurate Map of
SWEDEN, DENMARK
and
NORWAY,
from the best Authorities by
Thos Bowen





View of POTOSI *in the Kingdom of Peru in South America.*



View of TRUXILLO *in the Kingdom of Peru in South America.*

Lima, the capital of the audience of that name, and of all Peru, is situated in a fine valley near the sea, in the latitude of 12 deg. 2 min. south. A river of the same name washes the walls, over which was a handsome stone bridge. In 1746 a dreadful shock of an earthquake almost entirely destroyed this city in the space of three minutes, burying in the ruins those inhabitants, who, endeavouring to save their most precious moveables, had not made sufficient haste into the streets and squares. At the same time the sea, receding to a very considerable distance, returned with such violence, that Callao, which was the Port of Lima, and all the neighbouring country, were laid under water; men, women, and houses, being swept away with the torrent. Nineteen vessels, out of 23, were sunk; and the frigate called St. Firmin was carried, by the force of the waves, to a great distance up the country. For the space of four months the concussions continued, with short intervals, and many of them were as violent as the first; so that before the 24th of March in the following year, no less than 450 shocks had been felt, and some of them no less dreadful than the first. Above 12,000 people perished in the ruins of their own effects and property. It has now, in some measure, recovered, and is still the capital and great emporium of Peru, and the residence of the viceroy, whose government is triennial; though, at the expiration of that term, the sovereign may renew his commission. He enjoys all the pomp and prerogatives of royalty. All officers are appointed, and places filled up, by him. For the security of his person, he has two corps of guards, one of horse, and the other of halberdiers. The horse guards consist of 160, under the command of a captain and lieutenant; and their uniforms are blue, laced with silver. The halberdiers, in number 50, are clad in crimson velvet waistcoats, deeply laced with gold, and do duty in rooms leading to the royal audience chamber. Besides these, there is another guard within the palace, of 100 men, being a detachment from the garrison of Callao. All officers are occasionally employed in executing the orders of the viceroy, and enforcing the decrees of the tribunals, after they have received the royal assent; for such the concurrence of the viceroy is esteemed, who, besides assisting at the courts of justice and councils, gives daily audience to all degrees of persons. The supreme tribunal of Lima, called *audiencia*, is held in the viceroy's palace, and consists of eight auditors, and a fiscal, for civil affairs. Here is also a chamber of accounts, a board of treasury, a court for the effects of persons dying intestate and without lawful heirs, a council of commerce, and a tribunal of the inquisition; many convents, chapels and hospitals, with an university, in which are professors of the several sciences, and three subordinate colleges.

The inhabitants of this city, as of all the others in Spanish America, consist of Spaniards, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, Indians, and Negroes. The Spanish families were very numerous before the earthquake. A third or fourth part of them consisted of the chief nobility of Peru, who lived in the greatest splendour.

If Lima was not subject to earthquakes, it would be one of the most desirable places of abode in the world; but, unhappily, the interval between these is never of a length sufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them.

Callao, the port of Lima, is situated six miles west of that city. It is the best harbour in the south, being screened from the winds by the Island of St. Lawrence. Two fleets annually sail from hence; one for Africa, near Potosi, about the end of February, which, having received the silver on board, returns in the month of March; the other for Panama, in the beginning of May, with all the treasures and merchandize of Potosi, Chili, and Peru. Those of Chili are brought by the Spanish fleet. Besides these fleets, two ships sail annually for Acapulco, freighted with gold or silver; and the commodities they bring back are lodged in markets here, and retailed to all the southern provinces of America.

Cusco, the capital of the empire of Peru, before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the seat of the Incas or kings, stands about 326 miles from Lima, towards the east. It was then very large, magnificent, and populous. Here stood the famous Temple of the Sun, which was called *Curiachanchi*, and contained immense riches. The Incas resided in a part of the citadel, the walls of which were encrusted with gold and silver, and the whole fortress was built of stones, so long that several oxen could hardly draw one of them. It is still a considerable town, containing great numbers of Spaniards, Creolians, and Indians. The air is very pure and wholesome, and the neighbouring country very pleasant and fruitful. Here are some manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, and also of leather: and in the adjacent countries are gold and silver mines.

Arequiba stands in the valley of Quiloa, on a fine river, by which it has a communication with the sea, distant about 20 leagues. It is one of the most beautiful and pleasant towns in all Peru.

Guamanga, 180 miles east of Lima, is the see of a bishop, and contains an university.

Tuxillo, 250 miles north-west of Lima, contains only low houses, on account of the frequent earthquakes. Guamchaco is its port; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in wine, brandy, flax, marmalade, and, above all, sugar, as they cultivate plenty of sugar-canes in the neighbourhood.

The audience of Los Charcos, or La Plata, is bounded on the north by that of Lima, being 570 miles in a strait line, and 400 wide where broadest. The climate is various, the soil in general fertile, and the principal commodities silver, gold, and pimento. The chief places are,

La Plata, the capital, which is the seat of the governor of the province, of the archbishop, an university, and court of inquisition, which is subordinate to that of Lima.

Potosi, so famous on account of the rich silver mines in its neighbourhood, stands about 60 miles from La Plata to the south-east. The Spaniards and Creolians here are possessed of immense riches. All their cloaths are of gold and silver stuffs, and their kitchen furniture and plates of silver, which is not to be wondered at in a country where that metal is as common as copper and iron are elsewhere. They have great frosts and snows here in May, June, and July; and the neighbouring country is barren and uncouth, especially the mountains that contain the mines. The town is near two leagues in compass, and consequently the largest in Peru. There are four principal mines of silver, besides other smaller ones. Notwithstanding the barrenness of the country, the town is well provided with every necessary, some provinces sending the best of their grain and fruit, others their cattle, and others their manufactures. Those who trade in European commodities resort to Potosi as to a market, where they are sure of converting their merchandize into silver. Another species of commerce, carried on by a set of people called *Aviadores*, consists in exchanging coins towards paying the necessary expences of the workmen, for ingots and pinnos. As for the article of quicksilver, it is wholly engrossed by the crown.

An opinion prevails, that the discovery of the silver mines was owing to this accident. An Indian, Hualpa, pursuing some wild goats, came to a steep place, and seizing a shrub to aid his ascent, it gave way, when he beheld a mass of silver beneath the roots. He hastened home with the first fruits of his discovery, washed the silver, and made use of it; repairing, when his stock was exhausted, to the mountain for a new supply. In the course of time, an intimate friend of his observing the extraordinary change in his circumstances, was desirous of knowing the cause, and urging him closely upon this head, obtained an ample discovery of the whole secret. For some time they maintained a kind of partnership; but Hualpa refusing

to disclose his method of purifying the metal, so offended his comrade, that he immediately revealed the whole to his master Villareal, a Spaniard, who lived at Porco.

Besides the silver mines near Potosi there many others in the audience, especially towards Chili. There are also some of gold.

At a small distance from this place are hot medicinal baths, to which, as in other countries, some resort for health, and others for diversion.

La Paz is a considerable town situated near the spring-head of a river, about 220 miles from La Plata to the north-west. The mountains of the adjacent country abound in gold, and the plain and vallies in grain, fruit trees, and fields of maize. About thirty miles to the north-west of this town lies the lake of Titicaca, which is 80 miles in circumference, and has a communication with the lake of Paria.

Arica stands on the sea-coast, and has a good harbour, but contains only about 150 families. Formerly most of the silver of Potosi was shipped here for Lima, but now it is chiefly sent by land.

Santa Cruz de la Sierra, or the Holy Cross of the Mountain, is the capital of a little province north-east of Plata.

Although the Spaniards possess only a few cities, in the extensive province of Tucuman, they have nevertheless the dominion of the whole.

The cities possessed by the Spaniards are, St. Jago de Estero, so called from a river on which it is situated, whose inundations greatly contribute to fertilize the adjacent land, St. Miguel del Tucuman, Nuestra Señora de Talavera, Cordova de la Nueva, Andalusia, Rioja, and the large village of San Salvador. The two first of these are the most considerable; the two last are small, and built without order or symmetry. The chief design of the court of Madrid in maintaining settlements here is, to secure a communication between the colonies on the South and North Seas; for the commodities of the country of themselves would hardly reimburse the expence of keeping garrisons: they consist chiefly in honey, wax, sugar, wine, cotton, woollen stuffs manufactured by the natives; and mules, much admired for their strength and agility, on which account great numbers of them are exported to other provinces of South America.

The province of Quito is estimated at about 400 miles in length, and is situated between two chains of the high mountain called Cordilleros des Andes. The lands are generally well cultivated, and there are a great number of towns and villages inhabited by the Spaniards or native Americans. Every village is ornamented with a large square, and the church stands on one side of it. All the roads are laid out in a line, crossing each other, so that the aspect of the country has the appearance of a large garden. It might be imagined that this country is very hot, but it lies so high, and so near the mountains covered with snow, that the air is very temperate. They might have plenty of wine here, if Lima had not an exclusive privilege of making it themselves. They have no vicunas or guanacoës here, but they have an animal of the same kind, called by the natives lamas, which is like a small camel, and can carry fifty pounds weight. They have all sorts of materials proper for dying; and several sorts of fruits and plants which have been brought from Spain, besides those that naturally grow here. They have also imported bees and sheep. In the northern parts they have great quantities of gold.

The inhabitants of Quito are fond of dress. Persons of distinction of both sexes wear long garments, and a kind of loose mantle over their shoulders. The dress of the Spaniards is plainer than that of the Indians, the latter being usually of flowered cotton: both are fond of wearing ear-rings, and rows of beads round their necks, and the Indians will sometimes ornament even their ancles with bracelets. An Indian barber has a long loose garment, and carries his basin and other

utensils with him. A mechanic is dressed much in the same manner, with this difference, that he walks about with all his tools packed up in a bundle behind him, which has somewhat the resemblance of a porter's knot. The peasants are neat, but ornament themselves with beads or shells, and a common Indian only wears a plain loose garment, which the women so contrive as to carry their children on their backs.

Quito, the capital of the province, is seated in a pleasant valley, between two chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in length and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and is a bishop's see. There are several religious communities, and two colleges, which are a sort of universities, under the direction of the Jesuits and Dominicans. It contains about 35,000 inhabitants, of which one third are original Spaniards. All sorts of merchandizes and commodities are exceeding dear, chiefly on account of the difficulty of bringing them hither. It is the seat of the treasurer of the kingdom, as well as of the other officers.

HISTORY OF PERU.

NO design was entertained of conquering Peru, which was discovered by a Spaniard called Vasco Nunez de Balbao, till the conclusion of the war in Mexico, when the expedition was undertaken by three private persons, viz. Pizarro, Almagro, and De Luque; the two first being officers, and the last an ecclesiastic. It was stipulated, that Pizarro should command the embarkation; that Almagro should from time to time raise and send him recruits: and, that De Luque should remain at Panama, and lay in ammunition and provisions for the support of the enterprise: and they agreed to share the profits arising by the expedition equally, after the emperor's fifth should be deducted.

The difficulties Pizarro met with in his first attempt from the cross winds and currents, and the incessant rains that fell near the Equator were such, that all his men forsook him, and returned to Panama, except 14, but Almagro joining him with some recruits, these two heroes determined to continue their course to the southward, and having crossed the bay of Panama, went on shore, expecting to have found a passage to Peru by land; but the country being overflowed, or encumbered by rocks, woods, and mountains, they were obliged to return on board again, and setting sail to the southward, made so little way, that they were two years in advancing to the bay of Guayaquil.

The first considerable town they visited there was the city of Tumbez, to the cacique whereof Pizarro sent one of his officers to let him know they came as friends, and the cacique thereupon sent them all manner of refreshments. Not having a sufficient body of troops to undertake so important an expedition, he returned to Panama for re-inforcements, taking with him some of the inhabitants, animals, and treasures of Peru. Pizarro then went to Spain, procured the emperor's commission, returned and took with him three or four brothers, and set sail for Panama upon another expedition, A. D. 1530. He had now with him 125 soldiers, and 37 horses, with which he landed and began his depredations. The Indians fled before him, but many of his people dying he sent his ships back laden with plunder, to bring more recruits. Almagro joining him with reinforcements, they advanced together, defeated a large body of Peruvians, took the town of Tumbez, with immense treasures which were heaped up in the temple of the Sun and the Inca's palace. They now erected a fortress near the sea, and then pursued the Inca, or emperor Atahualpa.

Pizarro, finding that the Peruvians were engaged in a civil war among themselves, took pains to foment their intestine divisions, in order to prevent their uniting against him. The case was, that Atahualpa, a prince of illegitimate birth, had deposed and confined the emperor Huascar, and oppressed his friends. The

latter applied to Pizarro for assistance to dethrone the usurper. On the contrary Atahualpa made a similar application to the Spaniards for their friendship and countenance.

Atahualpa and Pizarro, having appointed an interview, the Spaniards traiterously attacked the Indians during the conference; and having slaughtered many, made the Inca prisoner.

Almagro, having raised a considerable body of forces at Panama, arrived at the camp of Pizarro soon after the slaughter of the Indians, and the imprisonment of their emperor Atahualpa. Pizarro went out to meet Almagro, congratulated his arrival, received him with all the marks of affection and esteem imaginable, and offered to divide the spoils with him, though it is evident they were, at that time, meditating each other's destruction; and it is said, Pizarro distributed as much gold and silver at this time among the Spanish soldiers as amounted to 15,000,000 l. sterling. The soldiers being possessed of this prodigious wealth, fell into all manner of excesses, raising the price of things to a very great rate, by offering any sums to gratify their appetites or fancies. And now Pizarro thought it a proper time to send over the fifth part of the treasure to the emperor, as he had stipulated, and with it his brother Ferdinando Pizarro, to solicit for such reinforcements as might establish the dominion of the Spaniards in Peru, and to petition that his government might be extended still further to the southward; marshal Almagro also employed his agents to represent to the court of Spain, with what expence and application he had sent and carried reinforcements, and supplied the general with ammunition and provisions from time to time, to enable him to make this conquest; and to desire that all that part of South America which lay to the southward of the lands granted to Pizarro, might be put under his government: and with these agents, sent by the general and the marshal, returned several adventurers, to the number of 50 or 60, who having obtained 30,000 or 40,000 ducats a-piece for their respective shares of the spoils, were perfectly satisfied with it, and chose to enjoy what they had got the remainder of their lives in their own country, rather than undergo more hazards and difficulties to increase their fortunes.

Atahualpa, the royal prisoner, having offered Pizarro a prodigious treasure for his liberty, and actually paid great part of it, was still detained, and at length being tried upon what were called, Articles of Impeachment, was most unjustly put to death. Atahualpa, the brother of this unfortunate prince, having determined on revenge, surprized the Spaniards on their march to Cusco, killed some, and took others, Sancho de Cellar, who had drawn up the process against the late Inca, being among the latter. With these they retired, strangling Sancho at the very place where the emperor was put to death; but such of the Spaniards, as had been against the cruel measure, they restored to liberty. The Peruvians were still inclined to treat upon reasonable terms; but the Spaniards insisted that they should immediately renounce their religion, give up their country and resign their freedom. This broke off the treaty, when Pizarro marched forward to the capital city of Cusco, where he arrived in the month of October, 1532, the people having abandoned the city, and carried off the greatest part of their treasure; but still the Spaniards found so much left behind, that they were amazed at the heaps of gold and silver they met with there: but the reigning Inca, Manco Capac, being about to assemble the whole Peruvian nation against these invaders, Pizarro thought fit to treat with the Inca and his Peruvians. He even invited the emperor to return to his capital, and proclaimed him Inca. These measures Pizarro found himself under the necessity of taking at this time, not only because he saw all the southern provinces of Peru assembling against them, under the Inca, Manco Capac, but because Koluminavi, Quiniza, and other Peruvian generals,

had assembled a very great army in the northern provinces, and possessed themselves of Quito, which obliged him to send a considerable detachment of his forces under the command of Sebastian Belalcazar, to reinforce the new colony to St. Michael's, and to make head against the Peruvian generals in Quito.

Belalcazar, thereupon, marching into Quito, made himself master of the capital city, and was in a fair way of reducing the rest, when advice was brought that Don Pedro de Alvarado was upon the coast of Peru with a considerable fleet, and landed 700 or 800 men, intending to take the government of Peru upon him, and expel Pizarro and Almagro from thence; at which news, these two adventurers were thunder struck, apprehending they should be dispossessed of all the spoils they had taken, and perhaps sent prisoners to Spain, to give an account of their murdering the late Inca Atahualpa, and massacring his people; they continued therefore to cultivate a good understanding with the Indians of the southern provinces, and treated the Inca and his subjects as their friends and allies, promising to perform punctually whatever they had agreed on; knowing how great an advantage it must be to have the country in their interest, if they were obliged to contend with Alvarado for the possession of it. They, however, at length found means to bribe Alvarado from the country and to persuade most of his followers to enter into their service. These additional forces rendered the adventurers very formidable, when Almagro marched to Cusco; and Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and other places on the coast. Pizarro now, according to the grant of the emperor, remained in possession of Peru, and Almagro made an expedition into Chili.

Almagro advanced as far as the province of Charcas, 200 leagues to the southward of Cusco, without meeting with any thing to obstruct his designs, that country being all under the dominion of the Inca, and supplying him with provisions as he went; but finding Charcas a wretched barren country, and being ignorant of the rich mines it contained, he resolved to proceed further to the kingdom of Chili; though, had he known the invaluable mines of Potosi were situated in this barren country, he would certainly have set up his rest here, for in this mountain was afterwards found more silver than any, or perhaps all the countries in the Old World produced at that time.

The Indians informed Almagro, that there were two ways to approach the kingdom of Chili, both extremely difficult and hazardous. The first was over a branch of the mountains of the Andes, or Cordeleros, which, at this time, (being winter) were covered deep in snow, and so cold that no Indian could live on the tops of them, (though this was much the shortest passage, if it could be performed;) the other was over a sandy desert by the sea-side, in which they would be in danger of perishing by excessive heat, and the scarcity of water; intimating that they were averse to the journey either way, but most dreaded that over the mountains of the Andes: however, Almagro resolving to remove forward, took the way of the mountains, as being the shortest, and more agreeable to the constitutions of his Europeans, than the scorching sands; and having gathered what provisions the country afforded, and laid it on the shoulders of the Indian porters, he began to ascend the hills; but had not advanced far before he found the snows so deep, that they were forced to dig their way through them, the Indians dying by hundreds with the intense cold: the Spaniards, also, were almost starved, and many of them perished with their horses on those mountains, either by cold or want; and some of the men lost their fingers and toes, who escaped with their lives. However, Almagro himself, with between 300 or 400 Spaniards, the Inca Puella, the high priest, and about 5000 Indians, reached the other side of the mountain, and came into a fine temperate, and pleasant country. The people of Chili presented the Spaniards with many presents, and Almagro penetrated into the country a considerable way.

but being informed, by the arrival of some Spaniards from Europe, that the part allotted to him by the emperor, included Cusco, he returned to Peru. Having suffered so much in their march over the mountains, the Spaniards and Peruvians returned by the way of the desert, where the hardships they underwent were but little inferior to the former. In the mean time the Inca Manco Capac observing that Pizarro only gave him the title of Inca, and that in reality he had very little command even in the capital city of Cusco, where he resided, put him in mind of his promise of restoring him to his empire, and performing the capitulations that had been agreed on between them; but Pizarro put him off from time to time, telling him he must wait with patience till he heard that those capitulations were ratified by his sovereign the emperor, which he expected to receive every day by his brother Fernando, and was going to Lima in hopes of meeting him there; desiring that the Inca, during his absence, would reside in the castle, and not stir from thence. The Inca finding they would make him prisoner by force, if he did not voluntarily submit to this confinement, disguised his resentment, and immediately went to the castle.

But the Indians were far from taking this imprisonment of their emperor patiently; they only waited for a favourable conjuncture to obtain his liberty; for Fernando Pizarro returning from Spain with his brother's new commission, and the patent for the title of marquis, brought some orders with him that were not acceptable to the marquis or his people; particularly he informed them, that the emperor expected they should be accountable to him for all the treasure they had received as the ransom of Atabalipa, his Imperial Majesty alone being entitled to it, or at least that they should raise him a good round sum, and send over to Spain in lieu of it; but the marquis and his officers replied, this was neither reasonable or possible; as they had hazarded their lives, and made a conquest of the country at their own expence, without any charge to his imperial majesty, they ought to reap the fruits of their labour; and besides, that money had been long since spent in supporting the conquest, building towns, and planting colonies, to preserve what they had gained, which would all redound to the honour and profit of his majesty, who by that means was confirmed and established in the sovereignty of that rich country. Whereupon Fernando desired his brother would confer on him the government of the capital city of Cusco, and he did not doubt but he should soon have it in his power to raise a sum of money to gratify the court of Spain; which the marquis consenting to, his brother Fernando immediately repaired to his government of Cusco; where observing that several officers had been greatly enriched by presents Manco Inca had made them, in order to be kindly used, he applied himself also to the Inca, giving him to understand, that he would be restored to his dominions, and all his demands granted, if he could procure a considerable sum for the court of Spain; and suffered the Inca to come out of the castle to his palace in the city again, and to be treated with the honours of a sovereign prince. Whereupon the Inca sent expresses to several parts of his dominions, directing them to bring their usual tribute of gold and silver plate, as the most probable means of delivering him from the hands of the Spaniards.

The treasures were brought, but the Spaniards still deceived him, when he delivered himself by this stratagem. He pretended, that in the valley of Yarico, great riches were hid, particularly a statue of solid gold as big as life, but that none but himself could find out the place. Fernando Pizarro was deluded by this pretence, and suffered the Inca to go to the valley with only a guard of Spaniards, from whom (as they did not suspect his design) he made his escape. Being at liberty, he raised three powerful armies, one being designed against Lima, the second to attack

Cusco, and the third to cut off Almagro. The principal army, under the Inca himself attacked Cusco with great fury, but were repulsed with terrible slaughter.

After cutting off several detachments of Spaniards the second Peruvian army invested Lima, which not being able to take, they only blockaded; but the third army did not attack Almagro, who arriving before the walls of Cusco, summoned Fernando Pizarro to surrender, who refused; but the place was betrayed to Almagro by some of the garrison, when the governor and another of the marquis of Pizarro's brothers were made prisoners.

In the mean time the marquis of Pizarro, not hearing from his brothers, sent a strong force to Cusco under the command of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Peter de Lerma was ordered also to march with this detachment as a private captain of a troop of horse, though he was an older officer than Alvarado, and had done great service in those wars, which so disgusted de Lerma, that he, from this time, meditated the ruin of the enterprise, as is supposed by the Spanish writers.

Alonzo de Alvarado continuing his march with the utmost diligence, most of the Indians that were pressed to carry his baggage, amounting to upwards of 5000, perished in the first part of the journey, either by the intolerable fatigue, being loaded and driven beyond their strength, or starved for want of food.

Almagro receiving intelligence that Alonzo was advancing to the city, sent some Spaniards of quality to him, to represent that Cusco belonged to his government, according to the division the emperor made of Peru, between him and the marquis de Pizarro, and therefore advised him to retire to Lima again, till he and the marquis should adjust the limits of their respective governments: but Alvarado was so far from entertaining any pacific thoughts, that he made all the gentlemen prisoners that were sent to treat with him. Whereupon Almagro took the field, constituting Don Orgonez his lieutenant-general; and having made a party of Alvaro's horse prisoners, understood by them, that great part of his troops were better affected to him, than they were to the Pizarros; particularly, he understood that Peter de Lerma, with a great many of his friends, would desert Alvarado the first opportunity.

He advanced therefore as far as the bridge of Abancay, on the other side whereof Alvarado lay encamped: so that there was nothing but a small river that parted their forces; they remained quiet, however, without attempting to attack each other all day; but in the night time, Orgonez fording the river, at the head of Almagro's horse, put Alvarado's forces into great confusion; and giving Peter de Lerma, and the rest of their friends, by this means, an opportunity to join them, Almagro gained an easy victory, without little bloodshed, making Don Alonzo de Alvarado his prisoner; with whom he returned in triumph to Cusco.

Almagro, after the battle, marched with 5000 horse and foot, and some thousand Indians, to the valley of Chinca on the sea-coast, taking with him his prisoner Fernando Pizarro, but he left Almagro and Alonzo de Alvarado prisoners in the hands of Cusco.

In the mean time, the marquis de Pizarro heard no news from Alonzo, and imagining the Indians might have possessed themselves of the pass of the mountains, and thereby cut off his communication, that general, marched in person at the head of 400 Spaniards, towards the mountains, to receive intelligence; and after some days march, received news that the Indians had raised the siege of Cusco, and that Almagro was returned from Chili, had possessed himself of that capital, and made his brothers, Peter de Lerma and Alonzo prisoners; and, that his other brother John Pizarro was killed during the siege of Cusco.

and a day or two after he had news brought him of the defeat of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Whereupon he thought fit to retire to Lima, and fortify himself there, till he should receive a re-inforcement of troops, which he expected every day; and to divert Almagro from taking the advantage of his present weakness, and putting his brother to death, he dispatched several Spaniards of quality to attend him, and offer him any terms he should insist upon, to procure his brother's liberty: Almagro was willing to treat, and an interview with only 12 horsemen of a side was agreed, but with so much treachery on Pizarro's side, that Almagro, with great difficulty escaped an ambuscade laid for him. At length Pizarro, by various artifices, obtained the liberty of his brothers, and then demanded not only Cusco, but all the conquests in Peru. Almagro very naturally rejected this unreasonable requisition, when a war immediately commenced between those rivals; when Almagro was defeated and taken prisoner, and at the same time the city of Cusco was lost. The unfortunate Almagro was afterwards cruelly put to death by his rival Pizarro, but the latter did not long survive him, being assassinated in his palace at Lima by a natural son of Almagro. Thus untimely fell the two conquerors of Peru, by means of their own reciprocal enmity, of whom it is only necessary to say, that both were equally possessed of courage, fortitude, and temperance; but both were equally ambitious and rapacious. Almagro was the most generous, Pizarro the most politic; the former possessed the most noble sentiments, but the latter had the greatest penetration.

SECTION III.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

THIS country lies between 12 and 37 degrees south latitude, and is about 1500 miles in length and 100 in breadth. It is bounded by Peru on the north, by Brazil on the east, by Patagonia on the south, and by Chili on the west.

Independent of horses, mules, sheep, goats, hogs, poultry, game, grain, fruit, &c. it produces an admirable drug called by the name of the country, Paraguay. This is an excellent emetic, and of itself might form a considerable article of commerce. The forests abound with wild beasts, and the rivers and lakes, besides various kinds of fish, with crocodiles, alligators, &c. The mines contain gold, silver, copper, iron, amethysts, &c. To the west of the great river Paraguay, the country is barren, but to the east, it is fertile. The next considerable river is that of Plate or La Plata, which rises in Peru, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean. The climate of Paraguay differs but little from that of Spain; and the distinctions between the seasons are much the same. In winter, indeed, violent tempests of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with such dreadful claps of thunder and lightning, as fill the inhabitants, though used to them, with terror and consternation. In summer, the excessive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which constantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In short, for the enjoyment of life, especially with regard to the salubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

The forests of this country abound with bees, which make their hives in the hollow trees. There are ten different species of these useful insects. That most esteemed for the whiteness of its wax, and the delicacy of its honey, is called *opemus*, but is very scarce. The cotton tree is a native of this country. The Spaniards sow and use hemp in pretty large quantities.

Venomous herbs, with which some Indians poison their arrows, abound here; but the antidotes are not common; and, among others, the herb called *Santon Herb*, which forms pretty large bushes, and is called *Santon*, and obtained its name, in the following manner.

There is a very pretty kind of sparrow called *Macagua*. This little kind of sparrow creature is very fond of the flesh of vipers, against whom, for this reason, he wages continual war. As soon, therefore, as he spies one of these reptiles, he puts his head under his wing, and gathers himself up into a round ball, without the least appearance of life or motion: he does not, however, cover his eyes so entirely, but that he may peep through the feathers of his wing, and observe the motions of his game, which he suffers to approach without stirring, until he finds it near enough to receive a stroke of his bill, which he then suddenly discharges at it. The viper immediately retorts with another of his tongue, but the minute the sparrow finds himself wounded, he flies to his herb, eats some of it, and is instantly cured. He then returns to the charge, and has recourse to his herb every time the viper stings him. This conflict lasts till the viper, destitute of the same resource, has lost all his blood: as soon as the reptile is dead the sparrow eats the carcase, and then has recourse again to its antidote.

Here are vast numbers of all kinds of serpents, and the rattle-snake in particular is a very formidable creature. This reptile suffers greatly when its gums are too much distended with venom, to get rid of which it falls upon every thing in its way, with two crooked fangs terminating in a point; and by means of a hollow in these fangs pours into the wound it makes all the venomous matter which tormented it. The effects of the bite are sudden, and the consequences dreadful, unless antidotes are speedily applied. The chief antidote is a stone, to which they have given the name of *St. Paul Bezoard*, and a poultice of chewed garlick. The very head of the animal, and its liver, which is likewise eaten to purify the blood, are equally efficacious as antidotes. The surest method, however, is to begin by making an incision directly in the part that has been stung, and then apply brimstone to it; nay, this drug alone has been frequently found to make a perfect cure.

Here are likewise some hunting serpents, which climb up the trees to discover their prey, and from thence dart upon it when within reach, squeeze it so tight that it cannot stir, and then devour it at their leisure.

The missionaries greatly contributed to the subjection and civilization of the inhabitants of this country. They instituted parochial and provincial jurisdictions for the purposes of order and good government, and may be said to have acquired and maintained that superiority which the Europeans now hold over it.

The natives of Paraguay are in general of a moderate stature, and well made. They have flat round faces, olive complexions, and long black hair. Their garments were formerly the skins of beasts, but now in most things they conform in dress to the Spanish fashions. Previous to their embracing christianity they worshipped the sun, moon, stars, thunder, lightning, groves, rivers, animals, &c. The women are allowed to propose matches as well as the men. When an Indian woman likes a man she acquaints one of the missionaries with it, who immediately sends for the young fellow. If he does not like her the priest persuades the woman to overcome her passion; but on the contrary, if the man is inclined to return her affection the priest immediately marries, and gives his blessing. The wives of the petty princes or lords wear a kind of turban crown made of straw, and their lords hang doe skin over their shoulders. The boys and girls go quite naked. They wrap up their infants as soon as born in a tyger's skin, and give them the breast for a little while, and then a piece of half raw meat to suck. Their beds are the hides of oxen, or tygers, spread on the ground; but the people of rank use hammocks of network.

The rude and uncultivated inhabitants of Paraguay, especially the Chacones, and the Guaranis, are of an extraordinary stature, and there have been found some

among them above seven feet high. Their features differ greatly from ours; and the colours with which they paint themselves give them such an aspect, that strangers cannot, at first sight, help being terrified a little. Accordingly by this means they pretend to strike a terror into their enemies. Most of the men go quite naked, all to a parcel of feathers, of different colours, hanging to a string about the waist. But at their public solemnities they wear caps made of the same feathers. In very cold weather they wrap themselves up in a kind of cap and cloak, made of skins pretty well dressed, and adorned with painted figures. Among some tribes the women are not better covered than the men. The bad qualities common to all these people are ferocity, inconstancy, perfidy, and drunkenness. They are all sprightly, though very dull of apprehension in every thing that does not immediately fall under the senses. There is, properly speaking, no form of government among them. Every town, indeed, has its cacique; but these chiefs have no authority, but in proportion to the esteem they have acquired. Several do nothing but rove from place to place with their furniture, which consists of nothing but a mat, a hammock, and a calabash. The cabins of those who live in towns are no better than wretched hovels, made with branches of trees, and covered with straw, or rather grass. Those who live nearest to Tucuman are better lodged and clothed.

Their favourite liquor is chicha. They assemble to drink it, and to dance and sing; and in these exercises they persist till they are all drunk. They then quarrel, and, from words, soon proceed to blows; so that their merry-makings seldom terminate without bloodshed, if not in the deaths of some of the guests. Several take advantage of the confusion to be revenged of their enemies. These exercises are almost peculiar to the men. The women generally withdraw the moment they perceive the liquor begins to get the better of the men, and carry off with them all the arms they can lay their hands on. A small matter is sufficient to breed a war between them; but their unconquerable inveteracy against the Spaniards easily unites them again on the first alarm from that quarter.

Their arms are bows, arrows, and lances, which they use with great dexterity and strength. They fasten a rope to the latter, by which they can, as the end is barbed, draw the wounded person to them. Besides sawing the necks of their prisoners with the jaw-bone of a fish, they scalp them, and preserve their scalps as tokens of victory. They are admirable horsemen, and tame and manage the wild horses with great address, which has made the Spaniards repent ever having stocked the country with those useful animals.

The Chaconse women have a custom of pricking their faces, breasts, and arms, in order to mark them. They are strong, robust, have easy labours, and bathe themselves and children immediately after delivery. They are very jealous of their husbands, yet entertain very little affection for their offspring.

These people usually bury their dead on the spot where they expire; plant a javelin, and the skull of an enemy, (if they can get one,) over the grave; and then remove to a distance from the place.

When the Spaniards first arrived in this country, the people lived in populous towns, and were governed by caciques, who were hereditary, and independent of each other. But if the succession failed, the election of a new cacique usually fell upon one famed either for valour or eloquence. At the death of a cacique, it was lawful for one of his brothers to marry the widow; but this seldom happened. In general, these Indians did not approve of such marriages between near relations; and the men among them, who have embraced the Christian religion, never marry any of their relations, even within those degrees with which the church readily dispenses.

They observed a number of forms and customs,

some absurd and ridiculous, and others horribly barbarous. The ceremonies they observed in giving names to their new-born children, will best serve to give a just idea of the savageness of this nation. Thinking it unlawful to perform the ceremony without the death of a prisoner of war, they deferred it till they could make one. After entertaining him plentifully for several days, they cut his throat on the day appointed for that purpose with great ceremony. As soon as he was dead, every one touched his body, or struck it with a stick; and during this operation they gave names to all the children that had not as yet received any. This done, the body was cut up, and every family took home a piece of it to make into broth, of which every one took a mouthful, not excepting children at the breast, whom their mothers took care to make partakers of this repast.

Their manner of receiving persons returned from a long journey had something very singular in it. The traveller, on entering his cabin, immediately seated himself, without uttering a single syllable; and the next moment the women began to walk round and round him, observing the same silence all the time, till at last they suddenly burst out into exclamations, which were followed by a long relation of all the disagreeable events that had happened in his family during his absence. The men, covering their faces, repeated the same things with a low tone of voice. This ceremony lasted a longer or shorter time, in proportion to the esteem they had for the traveller. At last they all congratulated him on his happy arrival, and entertained him in the best manner they were able.

Previous to marriage, the intended bride was placed under the care of a woman, appointed for that purpose, for the space of eight days. It was the business of the latter, during the whole time, to make the former work hard, to tease and thwart her, and, in fine, not to permit her to have any peace, rest, or ease. If she went patiently through this severe trial, her hair was cut off, and she was declared marriageable.

Physicians and fortune-tellers were formerly in great repute here. They were, however, only jugglers, pretending to prophecy from the singing of birds, and to cure diseases by sucking the parts affected.

Paraguay is divided into several provinces, which take their name from the rivers that pass through them. The principal are Paraguay and La Plata, properly so called. The chief place in Paraguay so called, is the town of Assumption, which is situated at the conflux of the rivers Parana and Paraguay, and is a large, well built, and populous city. It was erected by the Spaniards in 1531, in the midst of a very rich and fruitful territory.

The province of La Plata takes its denomination from the river of the same name. It is a fine, fertile, plentiful province, and abounds with provisions of all kinds, the principal wants being those of salt and fuel.

The great river of Plate, or La Plata, rises in Peru, and, among other rivers, receives the Paraguay in its course. The water is clear, abounds in fish, is full of delightful islands, and may be navigated for the greatest part of its course. Along its banks are seen the most beautiful birds of all kinds; but it sometimes overflows the adjacent country to a great extent, and is infested by serpents of a prodigious size. Before it falls into the Paraguay, it is called Panam.

Buenos-Ayres, the capital of the province, takes its name from the pleasantness of the climate, was founded in 1536, under the direction of Pedro de Mendoza, at that time governor. It stands on a point called Cape Blanco, on the south side of the Plate, and is a small river, in 34 deg. 34 min. south latitude, on a fine plain, rising by a gentle ascent to the mountains. Nothing can exceed the temperate time of the day, the mildness of the soil, or the beautiful verdure of the country. It spreads the whole face of the country with a variety of which the inhabitants have abundant stock.

spect as far as the eye can reach. Buenos Ayres has strait, broad streets, and is of a considerable extent, containing no less than between 3 and 4000 houses, mostly built of chalk or brick. Here is a very handsome square, with a magnificent cathedral, and a castle, in which the governor holds his court, and has a large garrison. The Spaniards bring hither part of the treasures of Peru down the river, and ship them for Spain, with vast quantities of hides, and other commodities of this country. The river is here seven leagues in breadth, and navigable for any ship 60 leagues above the town, but no farther, by reason of a cataract.

The trade of this country consists in cattle, fruits, and the herb Paraguay, already mentioned. Cotton is also a considerable article of commerce. Their returns, by importation, are gold, silver, sugar, and hides.

SECTION IV.

C H I L I .

THIS country, though comprehended in the viceroyalty of Peru, is very extensive, reaching from the frontiers of Peru to the Straits of Magellan. It is situated between 25 and 45 degrees of south latitude, being about 1200 miles in length, and 500 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Peru, on the east by Paraguay or La Plata, on the south by Patagonia, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

Chili lying south of the equator, the seasons are almost opposite to those in the northern hemisphere; but the face of the country, except on the sea-coast, is beautiful, and the climate wholesome. On the east the country is screened by the Andes, while, from the west, the air is cooled by the most refreshing breezes. Along the coast of the Pacific Ocean they enjoy not only a fine temperate air, but a clear serene sky, most part of the year. Sometimes, indeed, the winds, that blow from the mountains, are exceeding sharp in winter; but, in general, this is one of the most comfortable climates in the world, being a medium between the intense heats of the torrid zone, and the piercing winds of the frigid.

The Andes, being covered with snow great part of the year, supply the country with innumerable rivulets, which greatly contribute to its extraordinary fertility. There are many volcanos among these mountains; and the air is so sharp and subtle, that they cannot be passed without great danger. This country abounds in gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, iron, lead, &c. The soil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, and fruits in great variety and abundance. Among several remarkable herbs produced in this country, some of which are medicinal, and others applied to various uses, is the panqua, which is of infinite service in tanning leather.

Of animals there are horses, mules, oxen, goats, and sheep, all excellent in their kind. Birds, tame and wild, are found in profusion; and the coasts abound with most sorts of fish. The country is not infested with venomous insects.

The natives of Chili are of a middle stature, strong built, of a tawny complexion, and have long black hair on their heads, but pluck off that on their chins, and other parts of their bodies. They are tall, robust, active, and courageous, enduring fatigue, heat, and cold, to admiration.

The ordinary dress of the men is a kind of long tuck, which reaches half way down the legs. From the neck is suspended a chain of gold or copper rings. Women of the common class have a short covering, hardly reaching down to the knee; but the dress of the better sort is long, and they wear a petticoat under the outer garment. Their heads are ornamented with tups.

The common people usually carry clubs and staves. Their arms are pikes, bows, arrows, and swords. and

their discipline much more regular than that of the other Indians. Their manners are very simple. They have no gold or silver, though these metals are so common in their country. All their bedding is some skins laid on the ground; and they eat on the ground, or else on a little bench, and wipe their hands on a broom, instead of a napkin. Their food is of maize, fruits, herbs, and what they catch by hunting and fishing. Their drink, also, is made of maize toasted, steeped, and boiled, or of fruits. Their furniture consists of four or five dishes, and some wooden spoons or shells, a calabash or gourd to drink out of, and a leaf of a tree or maize for a salt-feller. When they make bread, they set great earthen platters, full of sand, upon the fire, and, when hot enough, take them off, put the grains of maize into the hot sand, stir them about till they be toasted enough for the purpose, and then grind them between two stones. They let blood with a sharp flint, fixed in a little piece of wood, and just long enough to open a vein. Though they can neither read or write, yet they have a peculiar way of registering events, and keeping accounts of things committed to their charge, by strings of different sizes, in which they make knots of several colours, called quipos. A French writer tells us, that the knowledge of these knots is a secret science, which fathers do not reveal to their children, till they find their death draw near.

As we are treating of the natives of Chili, it is necessary to observe, that these Indians may be considered under two distinct classes, the subjected and the free. The first of these live among the Spaniards in a state of servitude. The latter, which are very numerous, are independent, and have hitherto eluded the attempts made for reducing them to the subjection of the Spaniards.

It is remarkable that these Indians, in their contests with the Spaniards, have generally spared the white women, carrying them to their huts, and intermarrying with them, which is the reason that many Indians of these parts have the complexions of Spaniards born in that country.

The audience of Chili is divided into three provinces, St. Jago, Concepcion, and Chilo.

St. Jago contains St. Jago, the capital of Chili, founded in the year 1541, by Valdivia. It is situated on the river Mapocho, which gives name to a valley of great extent, and supplies the city with water. In the center stands the grand piazza, which is square, with a beautiful fountain in the middle. Here are the apartments of the governor or president, the palace of the royal audience, the town-house, the public prison, the cathedral, and many other handsome public and private buildings. The Spaniards in St. Jago, and the suburb of Chimba, on the other side of the river, are reckoned to amount to 8000, and the other inhabitants to about 30,000. Those who have acquired fortunes at Valdivia, Valparaiso, and Concepcion, repair hither to spend their days in ease and enjoyment. In the neighbourhood are the gold mines of Tilti, and the Lavaderos, by their concerns in which many of the citizens amass vast fortunes. The royal audience, residing in St. Jago, since its removal from Concepcion, is composed of a president, four auditors, and a fiscal, together with an officer who bears the title of protector of the Indians. Though subordinate, in some respects, to the viceroy of Peru, the determinations of the court are without appeal, except to the council of the Indies. The president is also governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom of Chili, in which quality he resides one half of the year in the capital, and the other at Concepcion. There is a tribunal of the inquisition in this city, and the see of a bishop, subordinate to the archbishop of Lima. Earthquakes have often done great damage here. That of 1647 was so violent, that it almost overturned the whole town, and sent such unwholesome vapours in the air, that all the inhabitants died, except about 3 or 400. Another dreadful shock, in 1732, laid the city in ruins.

The Chileans now seeing the Spaniards unable to resist their attacks any longer, pressed them on every side, without giving them a moment's time to breathe. They cut them all in pieces on the spot, except the general Valdivia. Him they bound and carried before Caupolican, the Chilean general, who ordered him to be tied to a tree, that he might be executed with more ceremony than those that fell in the battle. Valdivia, it is said, meanly begged his life of the conquerors, addressing himself chiefly to Lautaro, who was but a few hours before his slave. He promised, if they would spare him, to withdraw all the Spanish forces out of Chili, and never more disturb their peace, swearing by all that was sacred to perform his promise; but the unrelenting enemy was deaf to his intreaties: even Lautaro observed, that it was madness to trust to the promises of a captive, who would infallibly change his note if he was set at liberty. Whereupon the general pronounced his doom. Though authors differ about the manner of his execution. Some affirm that they poured melted gold down his throat, bidding him satisfy himself with that metal he so violently thirsted after. Others relate that one of the Indian caciques, not bearing to hear it debated whether the destroyer of their country should live or die, beat out his brains with a club, without asking the general's leave: and all the Spanish writers agree, that they made trumpets and dices of his bones, and preserved his skull as a memorial of that important victory, which they celebrated by feasting and dancing after their country manner, and instituted public sports and exercises; such as running, wrestling, and leaping, to be observed annually in memory of it; and expecting the Spaniards would give them another visit, they encamped in some of their most inaccessible woods and mountains, and Caupolican constituted Lautaro his lieutenant-general, for the services he had done in the late battle, finding him every way qualified for that post.

The Spaniards attempted to recover their losses; the war continued about 50 years, but the Chileans were most generally successful, and at length almost expelled them from their country. The Dutch being informed of these particulars in 1642, sent a squadron of men of war under the command of captain Brewer, with some land forces on board to make a settlement at Chili.

Brewer arrived on the coast of Chili on the 30th of April, 1643; and landing 50 soldiers on the 20th of May, they had a smart engagement with a Spanish party, whom they defeated, and some Chileans came on board, who gave the Hollanders hopes of success; but Brewer, the Dutch commodore, dying, who projected the enterprise, and the natives growing jealous of the designs of the Hollanders, and seeming ready to join the Spaniards against them, Herckerman, who succeeded Brewer in the command of the squadron, thought fit to return home without effecting any thing, having first demolished

a little fort they had erected on the harbour of Valdivia.

In the year 1669, an old Spaniard, who resided in the court of England, having represented to king Charles II. that the Spaniards had been beaten out of most of their settlements on the coast of Chili, and that it would be no difficult matter for the English to possess themselves of them, Sir John Narborough was sent with a man of war, called the *Sweepstakes*, of 36 guns, to view the coast of Chili, and enquire into the feasibility of planting colonies there: he was accompanied thither by the old Spaniard, (Don Carlos above-mentioned) Sir John passed through the straits of Magellan, and not round Cape Horn, as Brewer had done; and arriving on the coast of Chili near Valdivia, Don Carlos was let on shore, and took the road to the fort of Valdivia, which the Spaniards had rebuilt, being then in possession of the country, and Don Carlos was never heard of more. The Spaniards permitted the English to trade with their people for trifles at first, but would not suffer them to have a communication with the Indians, and, at length, made one of the lieutenants and three seamen prisoners, whom they refused to release, and what became of them was never known. Sir John Narborough, having no authority to commit hostilities against the Spaniards, returned home.

In queen Ann's reign the design of making settlements here was resumed, but proved abortive. Thus the martial genius of the natives continually retarded the progress of foreigners, and has always been the cause why the Spanish settlements here are so disproportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The free Indians are much more numerous than the Spaniards, who are computed at no more than 20,000. All the inhabitants of Chili, including Europeans, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, are reckoned at 150,000 only. Even the free Indians, it seems, now acknowledge the dominion of the king of Spain, and pay tribute to his governor; but the subjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, living among them, and serving them in the same manner as the natives of Peru and Mexico. The greater part of Chili is still possessed by the free Indians, who are rather allies than subjects of Spain, having, it is said, in the last treaty, consented to acknowledge the king of Spain for their lawful sovereign, only upon condition that they were suffered to continue under the protection of their own laws and government; an engagement which it will be hazardous for the Spaniards to break, however it may counteract their great design of gaining entire possession of these countries, and thereby repairing the constant decline of wealth and decay of their precious metals in their other settlements. The free Indians are governed by their own chiefs, whom the Spaniards call caciques, who claim no authority, besides that of administering justice, and commanding their tribes in time of war; having neither palaces, guards, nor revenue, or any other badges of sovereign authority.

C H A P. XIV.

PORTUGUESE DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

B R A S I L .

THE name of Brasil was given to this country because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. It lies between the equator and 35 degrees of latitude. Its length is about 2500 miles, and its breadth about 700. It is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Parana, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the same ocean, on the south by the river Plata, and on the west by a chain of mountains which divide it from Paraguay.

The climate of the country is not varying from the temperate to the torrid, but rather temperate, because

entered nothing can be more delightful, as the mountains are covered with woods of evergreens, and the valleys are clothed with verdure. Among the inland mountains are various fountains and lakes, which distinguish themselves into the great river of Parana, and the river of Amazonas.

The climate varies in different parts of this extensive country. In the northern province, towards the equator, great rains, and variable winds, are frequent. The former four rivers flow the country, and on the east the air to be very unhealthy, but in the southern province, the climate is more temperate, and the country more fertile.

This country breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures; among which are, the Indian salamander, a kind of four-legged insect, whose sting is mortal; the ibibaboka, a kind of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal to the human kind; the rattle-snake, which grows here to an enormous size; the lihoia, or roebuck-snake, which is able to swallow a roebuck whole, with its horns, being between 20 and 30 feet in length, and two or three yards in circumference; scorpions, one sort of which are between four and five feet long; lizards of three or four feet long; mellepedes both venomous and dangerous; and many others. The pismires here are very large, numerous, and destructive.

Here are ant-bears; tygers or madilloes; porcupines; janonveras, a very fierce ravenous animal, somewhat like a greyhound; armadilloes; various sorts of monkeys, some of which are very large; that called by Europeans the sloth, or lazy beast; and the topirassou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and very harmless. The flesh of the topirassou is good, and tastes like beef. They have great plenty of deer, hares, and other game, and a variety of other animals, wild and tame.

Brazil abounds with birds, some of which are remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taste. Of the first sort is the humming-bird, so called from the noise he makes with his wings, when he sucks the juice of flowers. A naturalist, who calls it colubri, says, it is not much bigger than a large beetle, and has a fine pipe like that of a nightingale, and near as loud. Their feathers, which way soever you turn them, appear of a different colour and hue, like those of the sun beams, on which account it is not unfitly called by the natives the sun-beam. The anhima hath a horn two or three inches long growing out of his forehead, and, on that account, is called by Europeans the unicorn-bird. The toucan is of the bigness of a wood-pigeon, and of a perfect jet-black all over, except under the breast and belly, which is of a fine yellow, and a small circle of red about the neck; but what is most extraordinary in this bird is, that its bill is bigger than its body, yellow without and red within, and about a span long. The guira, called by Europeans the sea-curlew, is remarkable for often changing its native colour, being at first black, then ash-coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson, which last grows richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. The cocoi, a very beautiful bird, paroquets, parrots, cockatoos, macaws, and a variety of others, are very common here. Their poultry are, turkeys very large and delicious; a sort of white hens; ducks and other water fowl. Their bats are of a prodigious size: they will go into houses in the night, and if they find any persons asleep, and uncovered, they will fasten on them, and suck their blood.

The sea coasts, lakes and rivers are stored with great plenty and variety of fish, among which is the globe fish, called by the Latins orbis minor, from its orbicular form, which is so beset all round with sharp spikes, like those of a hedge hog, that it bids defiance to all fishes of prey. But of all the living creatures in this sea, the most remarkable is the sea bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves. The inside is only filled with air, except about a spoonful of water that seems to poise it. The skin is thin and transparent, and like a bubble raised in the water reflects a great variety of colours.

The whole country contains a great deal of timber, but that which is termed Brazil wood is the principal species. This wood has a red colour, grows to a great height and considerable thickness, and thrives best among the rocks. The flowers are of a bright red, and have a strong agreeable aromatic scent. The wood is red, hard and dry, and is used in dyeing, but the colour which it produces is none of the best. It is likewise used medicinally both as a stomachic and astringent.

The palm trees of Brazil are of five different kinds, besides which here are woods of ebony, mastic, cotton trees, citron, &c. and many others which produce admirable fruits and balsams, and diffuse around a most delicious fragrant.

The principal commodities of this country are, ambergrease, balsams, sugar, sweetmeats, gold, emeralds, rosin, indigo, tobacco, pebbles, diamonds, &c.

The gold and diamond mines were first opened in the year 1681, and have ever since been computed to yield 5,000,000 sterling, a fifth of which belongs to the king.

The Brazil sugar is remarkably fine and white, and the tobacco admirable. Of the last article great exports are made to Africa, where they not only dispose of it to the natives, but even supply the vessels of other nations, who are obliged to purchase it for the convenience of carrying on the gold dust and slave trade with any tolerable advantage. The north and south parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides, and great numbers are annually exported to Europe.

The Portuguese trade is carried on at Brazil upon a very extensive plan. They do not send out single ships as the convenience of the several places, or the judgment of the European merchants may direct, but annual fleets, which sail in the following order, and at the following stated periods: that to Rio Janeiro sets sail in January; that to Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet to Pernambuco, in the month of March. The cargoes of these fleets, like those of the Spanish to their American colonies, consist of woolen goods from England, France and Holland; linens and laces from Holland, France and Germany; silks from France and Italy; silk and thread, stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in those metals, from England, as well as salt fish, bees, flour and cheese. These articles are conveyed up and down from the lower to the upper city on sledges, which are drawn by cranes turned by slaves, and tied with strong cable ropes, and the ascent being steep, is boarded along, that the sledges may meet with nothing to obstruct their way.

Brazil is divided into fifteen provinces, called captaincies, or captainries, the whole being a principality, which gives title to the presumptive heir of the crown of Portugal. Of these captaincies eight only are annexed to the crown.

The principal places in Brazil are,

The city of San Salvador, or Ciudad da Bahia, situated on the bay of All Saints: it is large, rich and well built, but stands on so disadvantageous and uneven a ground, (that is, on an eminence of about 100 fathoms, formed by the east side of the bay) as to make the accession to it very difficult, by reason of its great steepness, inasmuch that they are forced to have recourse to cranes and other machines for conveying goods up and down from the city to the port. The plan of the upper town is as regularly drawn as the unevenness of the hills would permit; but the streets are strait and of a poor breadth, most of them have to steep a descent that they would be impracticable for our coaches and chairs; to supply which defect the rich there, who are no less ambitious to distinguish themselves from the rest of mankind, by showing themselves above using those legs which nature has given them to walk on, cause themselves to be carried up and down in a most lazy manner, in beds of tapestry, supported by the ends to a long pole, which two or three attendants carry on their heads or shoulders. The bed is covered with a tetter or canopy, to which are annexed curtains to draw close or open, by which they are secured from rain, wind, and all the pleasures of the weather. Thus lying at his ease, and his head reclined on a velvet pillow, the proud sluggard is carried more easily and more cheaply than in coaches or sedans. The same manner of conveyance is here called for a carriage, and is used in other parts.

Notwithstanding the irregular and inconvenient situation, St. Salvador is one of the most trading and richest cities in this country, and we may add, that it contributes much to the strength of it, so that with a small expence it might be made impregnable, nature having formed ditches and outworks flanking one another in such a manner that the ground might be disputed inch by inch. The east side of St. Salvador is almost inaccessible; the rest are all well fortified both by art and nature, and the avenues guarded by several forts, particularly that of St. Peter, which is a regular tetragon of earth faced with stone, surrounded with a ditch; of St. Diego or James, much of the same form and materials, but without ditches; Casa de la Pulvera, or powder magazine, another strong tetragon, containing eight distinct magazines, vaulted and covered pyramidwise; the fort of St. Anthony, of the same form, but larger, and situated on the north side exactly over the watering-place, and commanding the road on the other; that of Nuestra Señora de Victoria, situated about half a cannon shot from the last; that of St. Bartholomew, which defends a little harbour, where ships may careen; and lastly, that of Montserrat, besides those which command the entrance; so that upon the whole, there seems little else wanting to render it inaccessible to the enemy, but the keeping those fortifications in better repair, rebuilding some others gone to ruin, and furnishing those forts with better cannon, and greater supply of ammunition, than are commonly found in them. Both town and forts are garrisoned by regular forces maintained by the king of Portugal, all well armed, disciplined, clothed and paid.

The following place was visited by *Captain Cook* on his first voyage, and from whose authority we shall give a particular description of it.

R I O D E J A N E I R O.

Town, Harbour, Country round it, Climate, Vegetables, Fish, Birds, Insects, Gold Mines, Precious Stones, Diamonds, Restriction on Travellers, Coin, Manufactures, Inhabitants, Government, haughty severities of the Military Officers, despotic Power of the Viceroy, Manners and Customs, Religion, with some general Remarks.

THIS town, which is the capital of the Portuguese dominions in America, derives its name from Rio de Janeiro, or the river of Jannarius, probably so called from its having been discovered on the feast day of that saint. *Captain Cook* says, it is rather an arm of the sea, as it did not appear to receive any considerable stream of fresh water. The town stands on a plain close to the shore on the west side of the bay, at the foot of several high mountains that rise behind. It is neither ill designed or ill built: the houses in general are of stone, and two stories high, every house having, after the manner of the Portuguese, a little balcony before its windows, and a lattice of wood before the balcony. Its extent was computed by *Captain Cook* at about 1000 fathoms, for it appeared to be equal in size to the best country in England. The streets are strait, and of convenient breadth, intersecting each other at right angles: the greater part, however, lie in a line with the bay, and called St. Sebastian, which stands at the top of the hill that commands the town.

Rio Janeiro is supplied with water from the neighbouring hills by an aqueduct raised upon two stories which rises to a great height from the ground, from which the water is conveyed by pipes into a fountain in the great square that fronts the Viceroy's palace. As this fountain great numbers of people are continually waiting for their turn to draw water, and the soldiers who are posted at the governor's door, find it very difficult to maintain any regularity among them. The cleanliness of the fountains, however, was so bad, that our people, who had been two months at sea confined to drinking water, which was almost always foul, could

not drink it with pleasure. Water of a better quality is laid into some other part of the town, but our people could not learn by what means.

The harbour of Rio de Janeiro, situated west by north, 18 leagues from Cape Trio, may be known by a remarkable hill, in the form of a sugar-loaf, at the west part of the bay; but as all the coast is very high, and rises in many peaks, the entrance of the harbour may be more certainly distinguished by the islands that lie before it, one of which, called Rodonda, is high and round like a hay-stack, and lies at the distance of two leagues and an half from the entrance, in the direction of south by west.

Though the entrance is not wide, this harbour is certainly a good one; for the sea breeze, which daily blows from ten or twelve o'clock till sun set, makes it easy for any ship to go in before the wind; and it grows wider as the town is approached, so that a breadth of it there is room for the largest fleet, in five or six fathom water, with an oozy bottom. At the narrow part the entrance is defended by two forts.

The country, at a small distance round the town, (which was all that was seen by any of our people) is beautiful in the highest degree; the wildest spots being varied with a greater luxuriance of flowers, both in beauty and make, than most of the gardens in England.

Though the climate is hot here, the situation of this town is wholesome; for *Captain Cook* remarks, that, during his stay here, the thermometer never rose higher than 83; though there were frequent rains, and once a very hard gale of wind.

With respect to cultivation, there is but little appearance: the greater part of the land, indeed, is wholly uncultivated, and very little care or labour seems to have been bestowed on the rest. There are, indeed, spots, or gardens, in which many kinds of European garden stuff are produced, particularly cabbages, peas, beans, kidney beans, turnips, and white radishes, but all much inferior to those of our country. Water melons and pine-apples are also produced in these spots; and they are the only fruits that were seen cultivated; though the country produced musk-melons, oranges, lemons, limes, sweet lemons, citrons, plantains, bananas, mangos, mamane-apples, accajou or cashou-apples and nuts; jamboira of two kinds, one of which bear a small black fruit; cocoa nuts, palm nuts of two kinds, one long, the other round; and palm cherries; all of which were in season when our people were here, which was in the month of December.

The water melons and oranges were the best fruits of their kind. The pine-apples, *Captain Cook* says, were inferior to those he had eaten in England: he adds, that they are, indeed, more juicy and sweet, but have no flavour, and that he believed them to be native of this country; though he heard of none that, at this time, grew wild. They have, however, very little care bestowed upon them, the plants being set between any kind of garden stuff, and suffered to take the chance of the season. The musk-melons are mealy and insipid; but the water melons are excellent, having a flavour, at least a degree of acidity, which ours have not. Several species of the prickly pea, and some European fruits, were seen, particularly the apple and peach, both which were very mealy and insipid. In the gardens, also, grew yams and manioc, which, in the West Indies, is called cassava, and to the flour of which the people here give the name of *Farinha de Pau*, which may not be improperly translated, Powder of Post.

The soil, though it produces tobacco and flour, will not produce bread corn, so that the people here have no wheat flour, but what is brought from Portugal, and sold at the rate of selling a pound, though it is generally used by them in the paste. The natives were of opinion that all the produce of our West India islands could be got here, without going

which the inhabitants import their coffee and chocolate from Lisbon.

Most of the land in this country is laid down in grass, upon which cattle are pastured in great plenty; but they are so lean, that Englishmen will scarcely eat of the flesh. The herbage of these pastures consists chiefly of creffes, and is, therefore, so short, that, though it may afford a bite for horses and sheep, it can hardly be grazed by horned cattle in a sufficient quantity to keep them alive. With respect to drugs, all that could be found in the apothecaries shops were, *pareira brava* and *balsam capivi*, both excellent in their kinds, and sold at a very low price.

The river, and, indeed, the whole coast, abound with great variety of fish: almost every day one or more of a new species were brought to Mr. Banks. The bay is admirably adapted for catching these fish, being full of small islands, between which there is shallow water, and proper places for drawing the seine. The sea without the bay abounds with dolphins, and large mackarel of different kinds, which readily bite at a hook; and the inhabitants always tow one after their boats for that purpose.

Soon after the ship left the harbour some of the people hooked a shark, and, while they were playing it under the cabin window, it threw out, and drew in, several times, what appeared to be its stomach. It proved to be a female, and, upon being opened, six young ones were taken out of it: five of them were alive, and swam briskly in a tub of water; but the sixth appeared to have been dead some time.

The banks of the sea, and of the small brooks, which water this part of the country, are almost covered with small crabs. Some of these had one of the claws called by naturalists the hand, very large; others had them both remarkably small, and of equal size; a difference which is said to distinguish the sexes, that with the large claw being the male.

In this country is a variety of birds, especially small ones, many of them adorned with the most beautiful plumage. Among these is the humming bird, equal to any heretofore described.

There is as great a variety of insects, some of which are very beautiful, especially the butterflies, which being more nimble than those of Europe, many of them flew near the tops of trees, and were, therefore, very difficult to be caught, except when the sea breeze blew fresh, which kept them nearer the ground.

The sea, a league or two distant from this place, was observed to be covered with broad streaks of a yellowish colour, several of them a mile long, and three or four hundred yards wide. Some of the water thus coloured was taken up, and found to contain innumerable atoms, pointed at the end, of a yellowish colour, and none of them the fortieth part of an inch long. In the microscope they appeared to be small fibres, interwoven with each other; but whether they were animal or vegetable substances, or for what they were designed, our naturalists could not determine.

The mines, in which the riches of the place consist, our people supposed to lie far up the country, though they could never learn where, or at what distance; for the situation is concealed as much as possible; and troops are continually employed in guarding the roads that lead to them. It is almost impossible for any man to get a sight of them, except those who are employed there. Indeed, the strongest curiosity would scarcely induce any man to attempt it; for whoever is found upon the road to them, if he cannot produce undeniable evidence of his having business there, is immediately hanged upon the next tree.

The gold from these mines is acquired at an expence of life, that must strike every man with horror to whom custom has not rendered it familiar. No less than 40,000 Negroes are annually imported, on the king's account, to dig in the mines: and *Captain Cook* was credibly informed, that the last year but one before he arrived here, this number fell to short, probably from some

epidemic diseases, that 20,000 more were draughted from the town of Rio.

Such a plenty of precious stones is found here, that a certain quantity only is allowed to be collected in a year. To collect this quantity a number of people are sent into the country where they are found, and when it is got together, which sometimes happens in a month, sometimes in less, and sometimes in more, they return, and after that, whoever is found in these districts, on any pretence, before the next year, is put to death.

Diamonds, topazes, and several sorts of amethysts, are found here. Our people did not see any of the diamonds, but were informed, that the viceroy had a large quantity by him, which he would sell on the king of Portugal's account, but not at a less price than they were sold for in Europe. Mr. Banks purchased a few pazes and amethysts. Of the topazes there are three sorts of very different value, which are distinguished here by particular names. They are sold, large and small, good and bad, together, by octavos, or the eighth part of an ounce; the best at four shillings and nine-pence. All dealing, however, in these stones, is prohibited the subject under the most severe penalties. There were jewellers here formerly, who purchased and worked them on their own account. About fourteen months before the arrival of our people, orders came from the court of Portugal that no more stones should be wrought except on the king's account. The jewellers were ordered to bring all their tools to the viceroy, and left without any means of subsistence. The people employed here to work stones for the king are slaves.

To restrain the people from travelling into the country, or getting into any district where gold or diamonds may be found, of both which there are more than the government could otherwise secure, certain bounds are prescribed them at the discretion of the viceroy, sometimes at a few, and sometimes at many miles distance from the city. On the verge of these limits a guard constantly patrols, and whoever is found beyond it is immediately seized and thrown into prison; and if a man is, upon any pretence, taken up by the guard without the limits, he will be sent to prison, though it should appear he did not know their extent.

The current coin here is either that of Portugal, consisting chiefly of thirty-six shilling piece, or pieces both of gold and silver, which are struck at this place. The pieces of silver, which are very much debased, are called petacks, and are of different value, and easily distinguished by the number of rees that is marked on the outside. Here is also a copper coin, like that in Portugal, of five and ten ree pieces. A ree is a minimal coin of Portugal, ten of which are equal in value to about three farthings sterling.

With respect to manufactures, none were seen or heard of here, except that of common hammocks, in which people are carried about as they are with us in sedan chairs; and these are principally, if not wholly fabricated by the Indians.

The inhabitants of this place, which are very numerous, consist of Portuguese, Negroes, and Indians, the original natives of the country. The Indians are employed to do the king's work in this neighbourhood, can scarcely be considered as inhabitants. Their residence is at a distance, from whence they come in turns to their task, which they are obliged to perform for small pay. The guard boat was constantly rowed by these people, who are of light copper colour, and complexions, and have long black hair.

Though the government here, as to the town, is mixed, it is, in fact, very despotic. It consists of the viceroy, the governor of the town, and a council. Without the consent of this council, in which the viceroy has a casting vote, no judicial act should be performed, yet both the viceroy and governor frequently commit persons at their own pleasure, and send them to Lisbon, without acquainting the council, or family with what is laid to their charge, or what they may be found.

The military establishment here consists of twelve regiments of regular troops, six of which are Portuguese, and six Creoles, and twelve other regiments of provincial militia. To the regulars the inhabitants behave with the utmost submission. *Captain Cook* was told, that if any one should neglect to take off his hat upon meeting an officer, he would immediately be knocked down. These haughty severities render the people extremely civil to any stranger who has the appearance of a gentleman. But the subordination of the officers themselves to the viceroy is enforced with circumstances equally mortifying, for they are obliged to attend in his hall three times every day to ask his commands. The answer constantly is, "There is nothing new." *Captain Cook* was told that this servile attendance is exacted to prevent their going into the country, and remarks upon the occasion, that, if so, it effectually answers the purpose.

With regard to the women, it is on all hands agreed, that the females of the Portuguese and Spanish settlements in South America are less averse to granting amorous favours than those of any other civilized part of the globe. According to Dr. Solander's account, as soon as the evening began, females appeared on all sides, in every window, and particularized those of the male sex they liked by giving them nosegays. The Doctor, and two other gentlemen, received so many of these bouquets, that they threw handfuls away. *Captain Cook*, upon this occasion, very candidly observes, that great allowance must be made for local customs; that which in one country would be an indecent familiarity, being a mere act of general courtesy in another; and that, therefore, he had only to say, he was confident of the truth of the fact thus related.

The churches are very fine; and there is more religious parade in this place than in any of the Popish countries of Europe. There is a procession in some parish or other every day, with various insignia, all splendid and costly in the highest degree. They beg money, and say prayers in great form, at the corner of every street.

While the English lay here one of the churches was rebuilding, and, to defray the expence, the parish to which it belonged had leave to beg in procession thro' the whole city once a week, by which very considerable sums were collected. At this ceremony, which was performed by night, all the boys of a certain age were obliged to assist, the sons of gentlemen not being excused. Each of these boys was dressed in a black cassock, with a short red cloak hanging about as low as the waist, and carried in his hand a pole about six feet long, at the end of which was tied a lantern. The number of lanterns was generally above 200, and the light they gave was so great, that the people, who saw from the cabin window, thought the town had been on fire.

The inhabitants, however, may pay their devotions at the shrine of any saint in the calendar without waiting till there is a procession; for before almost every house there is a little cupboard, furnished with a glass window, in which one of the titular powers is waiting to be propitious; and to prevent his being out of mind, by being out of sight, a lamp is kept constantly burning before the window of his tabernacle in the night. The people, indeed, are by no means remiss in their devotion, for, before these saints they pray and sing hymns with such vehemence, that, in the night, they were distinctly heard on board the ship, though she lay at the distance of at least half a mile from the town.

The churches here afford an asylum to criminals in cases of murder. It is related, that as *Captain Cook's* cockswain was one day looking at two men who appeared to be talking together in a friendly manner, one of them suddenly drew a knife, and stabbed the other, who not instantly falling, the murderer drew out the weapon, and stabbed him a second time. He then ran away, and was pursued by some Negroes, who were witnesses of the fact; but whether he escaped, or was taken, *Captain Cook* never heard.

Rio de Janeiro is a very good place for ships to put in for refreshment. The harbour is safe and commodious, and provisions, except wheaten bread and flour, may easily be procured. As a succedaneum for bread, there are yams and cassava in plenty. Beef, both fresh and jerked, may be bought at about twopence-farthing a pound, though, as before observed, it is very lean. The method of jerking beef here is by taking out the bones, cutting it into large thin slices, then curing it with salt, and drying it in the shade. It eats well, and, if kept dry, will remain a long time at sea. Mutton is scarcely to be procured, and hogs and poultry are dear. There is abundance of garden-stuff and fruit, of which, however, none can be preserved at sea but the pumpkin. Rum, sugar, and molasses, all excellent in their kind, may be had at a reasonable price. Tobacco is cheap, but not good.

Ships water at the fountain in the great square, tho', as before remarked, the water is not good. The casks are landed upon a smooth sandy beach, about an hundred yards distant from the fountain; and, upon application to the viceroy, a centinel may be appointed to look after them, and clear the way to the fountain where they are to be filled.

Here is a good yard for ship-building, and a small hulk to heave down by: for as the tide never rises above six or seven feet, there is no other way of coming at a ship's bottom.

Fernambuco, the chief town of the province to which it gives name, is a very considerable place. It is also called *Relief*, or *Arraise*, from a neighbouring harbour of that name, which is now the strongest in all Brasil, a number of forts being erected all round, and the access naturally so intricate and dangerous, by that the assistance of a skilful pilot is absolutely necessary to avoid them.

There are many more towns in Brasil, and some of them considerable; as Olinda, in the province of Fernambuco; Paraiba, St. Vincent, Tamora, or Tamari-ca, and Sierra, in the provinces so named; Belem, or Para, in the province of Paria; and Maragnano, in an island and captainry of that name, towards the northern extremity of Brasil.

About 30 miles north of the province of St. Vincent, which is the most southerly of Brasil, lies the little republic of St. Paul, surrounded by lofty mountains and thick forests. This state was originally composed of outlaws from all the neighbouring colonies, Spaniards, Portuguese Creoles, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, who took refuge on this spot, and lived at first without order, society, faith, honour, or religion; preying upon each other, and subsisting by mutual rapine, and the plunder of their neighbours; but the inconveniences attending this way of life, and the danger to which it exposed them, soon drove them into confederacies, and these, at last, produced a regular democracy. If they were more numerous, they would be formidable to the Portuguese colonies; but as they are not reputed above 4 or 5000, and want fire-arms, they give no apprehensions, and consequently no attempts are made to reduce them. At present, this little community claims entire independence; though they pay an annual tribute to the king out of their gold mines, rather to preserve commercial benefits than to acknowledge his sovereignty. It was the tyranny of the Brazilian government that gave birth to this little state, which is at length grown so jealous of its liberty, that no stranger is suffered to set foot within its dominions, outlaws and run-away slaves excepted. The convicts from Brasil are transported to the island of St. Catherine's, which is situated in 27 deg. 35 min. south lat. and though appropriated to this purpose, is one of the most delightful spots imaginable, being about 27 miles long, and six broad.

Of the natives in Brasil, the most considerable tribes are, the Tapoyers and Topinamboys; of whom the former inhabit the northern, and the other the southern parts.

parts. The former are men of a good stature, of a dark copper colour, their hair black, and hanging over their shoulders; but they suffer no hair on their bodies or faces, and go almost naked. Their ornaments are, glittering stones, hung upon their lips or nostrils, and bracelets of feathers upon their arms: the men have also a cap or coronet of feathers.

The complexions of the Topinamboys are not so dark as their northern neighbours, who live nearer the line; and neither the one or the other as those of the Africans, who lie under the same parallels. The native Brasilians are partly freemen, and partly slaves; but the negro slaves are much more valuable, being of a more robust constitution, and fitter for labour.

The Brasilians have been represented as very savage, devoid of all principles of religion, cruel in war, and cannibals, or devourers of flesh; but these stories are generally looked upon as fictions of the Portuguese, to justify their cruel and inhuman treatment of them. They believe in certain invisible beings, the dispensers of good and evil, the rewarders and punishers of virtue and vice; and their notion with respect to a future state is, that after death they shall visit their ancestors, dwelling beyond the Andes; but they have no temples. Their priests make them believe, that if they bring them offerings, those invisible beings, who give them food and all the good things they enjoy, will prosper their affairs, but if they neglect this, some terrible misfortune will befall them. They have caciques who rule them in peace, and lead them in war. Their towns are without walls; their mode of carrying on war is by ambuscades, and their weapons are bows, arrows, shields, and wooden clubs.

HISTORY OF BRASIL.

THIS country was first seen by Americus Vesputius in 1489, but not planted till 1549, when the Portuguese fixed themselves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. The Portuguese

met with very great interruption in their settlement from the court of Spain, who considered the country a part of their dominions, till at length it was agreed that they should possess all those parts lying between the rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy.

The French made an attempt to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when their king, the great Don Sebastian, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa, by which event a period was put to the liberty of the Portuguese, their kingdom being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

After this the Dutch made bold and vigorous attempts to extend their power, attacked the possessions of the Portuguese in the East Indies, and at length turned their arms upon Brasil, took several of its provinces, and would have subdued the whole country, had they not been stopped in their victorious career by the Archbishop Don Michael de Texira, at the head of a few scattered forces. The Dutch owed their conquests in Brasil to the famous Prince Maurice of Nassau, whom they appointed governor of Pernambuco; but their West India Company, to whom this colony was subject, disapproving the measures of Prince Maurice, treated him with indignity, and thereby obliged him to resign his government.

A change of fortune upon this took place; and, in 1654, the Dutch were totally expelled Brasil by the Portuguese. But as they still continued their pretensions to the colony, the Portuguese agreed, in 1661, to pay them an enormous sum to relinquish their interest, which being accepted, the Portuguese remained in peaceable possession of the country till the close of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing that war was declared between Spain and Portugal, besieged and took the fortress of St. Sacramento, which, by the treaty of peace, was soon afterwards restored to the Portuguese.

CHAPTER XV.

FRENCH AND DUTCH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

FRENCH GUIANA.

THAT part of Guiana that belongs to the French extends about 240 miles along the coast, from Cape Orange, in the latitude of 4 deg. 27 min. north, to the river Marani, in latitude 6 deg. 46 min. north. The settlements are not extended above twenty miles from the sea-coast, the inland country being still inhabited by the native Indians, of whom a particular account will be given in our description of Dutch Guiana, or Surinam, which is separated from French Guiana by the river Marani. The land along the coast is low and marshy, and the climate of course unhealthy. But on the higher parts, where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is healthy, and the heats are greatly mitigated by the sea breezes.

The chief settlements of the French in Guiana are situated in the Isle of Cayenne, which lies 100 miles west of Cape Orange, at the mouth of a river of the same name. It is about 45 miles in circumference, well wooded and watered, admirably cultivated, and extremely fertile in sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, plants, fruits, and other necessities of life. But the French fort, which stands at the bottom of the harbour, has no other fresh water than what is saved from rain in large

cisterns. On the easternmost point of the island are the town and fort of St. Louis. The town contains about 200 houses, occupied by mechanics and tradesmen, and the fort has a good garrison.

The French first established themselves here in 1635. The place was afterwards possessed alternately by the English, then by the French again, to whom succeeded the Dutch, but the French finally prevailed, and still keep it.

SECTION II.

DUTCH GUIANA.

THAT part of Guiana belonging to the Dutch is distinguished by the appellation of Surinam. This country was formerly the property of the English. The Dutch took it in the reign of Charles II. and it was ceded to them by treaty in 1674, in exchange for what they had possessed in the province now called New York.

The only division of the seasons known here is into wet and dry; of which there are annually two, of about three months duration each. The excessive rains render the soil too rich, so that the canes being too luxuriant to make good sugar are, during the first and second crops, converted into rum. In the elevated parts

parts blossoms and green and ripe fruit are to be found on the same tree throughout the year.

The climate of this country is, by no means disagreeable or unhealthy; for the trade winds by day, the land breezes in the evening, and the invariable length of the nights, with refreshing dews, render the air temperate and salubrious.

Besides trees and plants common to other countries, the Simaraba tree, peculiar to Guiana, is esteemed a specific in dysenteries. The carunce is a pernicious nut, the powder of which the Indians conceal under their nails till they have an opportunity of putting it into the food or drink of those they wish to poison.

There is an extraordinary animal here peculiar to the country, called laubba, an amphibious creature, about the size of a small pig. The head and feet are like those of a pug dog, but it is without a tail. The monkeys of this country are innumerable, and their species various. Here are bats twice as large as ours, and without tails. Most people in Guiana sleep in hammocks, as being more secure from serpents and poisonous insects; but this does not secure them from the bats which approach any part of the body that is uncovered, generally the feet, open a vein, and suck the blood till they are satisfied. There is also peculiar to Guiana a large venomous toad, called the pipa. Its young are bred in the back of the male, where the female deposits the eggs.

There is so great a variety of beautiful birds in Guiana, that several persons in the Dutch colony employ themselves and their slaves in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of Europe.

Most of the fishes of Guiana also are common to it with other countries. The torporific eel, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock resembling that of electricity.

Guiana abounds in serpents of various kinds. There is one sort, not venomous, that measures sometimes above thirty feet in length and three in circumference. It has a taper tail, armed with two claws, like those of a dunghill cock. Small deer have been found in their stomachs. There are also some of those called amphisbæna.

The insects of Guiana are innumerable, owing to the constant warmth and humidity of the climate.

The inhabitants of Guiana are either natives, who are of a reddish brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of these in various combinations. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or less enlightened, and polished as they are more or less remote from the settlements of the Europeans. They allow polygamy, and have no division of lands. The men go to war, hunt and fish: the women look after domestic affairs. Their arms are bows, arrows, clubs, and poisoned darts blown through a reed. They go almost naked, excepting upon particular occasions; when they ornament their heads with feathers. They are cheerful, humane and friendly; but timid, and addicted to drinking.

Their houses are quadrangular, consisting of four stakes with cross poles, and are covered with leaves. They set them up, pull them down, and carry the whole with them at pleasure; as their dwellings are light, and their lives ambulatory. They bury their dead naked, and get drunk at the funeral to bury their sorrows. When the body has been interred a sufficient time for the flesh to be rotten they take up the bones, distribute them among the relations and friends of the deceased, and again get drunk to testify their respect for the memory of the deceased. Their wants are easily supplied, and their vices are but few. Continence before marriage is not considered as a virtue; a man cares not whether the woman he marries is a virgin or not; but no injury is so surely revenged as the infidelity of a wife.

Nothing is cultivated here by the natives but plan-

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tains, cassava and yams; and one month's cultivation is sufficient for all these. The men are all hunters, and they can always find game or fish, if they prefer it, without danger or toil. They dress it by boiling, either in water or in the juice of cassava, and season it very high with kyan, or red pepper. The only set time of eating is the evening, when they return from hunting: in general, they eat when they are hungry. They scarce know salt, but sometimes preserve animal food by smok-drying it. Their drink is water, or a fermented liquor, prepared from the plantain, called pievoree: when they have plenty of this they are continually drunk; so that their indolence and improvidence, by preventing a constant supply, become public and private blessings.

As supplying the wants of nature in so fertile and delightful a country takes up but a small portion of their time, they fill up the intervals by various amusements: they bathe and swim in the rivers, in large companies, several times a day, without paying any regard to distinction of sex; and they swim so well, that they may be almost reckoned among amphibious animals. At other times they visit each other, and are mutually entertained with the simple occurrences of their lives, and a great variety of fables, which are merry, significant and moral. Sometimes they dance, and frequently burst into immoderate laughter; and sometimes they recline indolently in their hammocks, where they not only sleep, but eat, converse, and play; blow a kind of rustic flute; pluck out the hair of their beards, or admire themselves in looking-glasses.

The women suffer nothing in child-birth, which is attended neither with danger or pain. The mother and child, immediately after delivery, are plunged into the water, and the next day she returns to her domestic employment, as if nothing had happened. The children are fed, and during their infancy no other care is taken of them; none are sickly or deformed: the boys, as they grow up, attend their fathers in hunting, and the girls assist their mothers. In old age they become wrinkled; but never either bald or grey. As they have no method of computing time to any number of years, their age cannot be ascertained; but there is sufficient reason to conclude, that their lives are long.

In all their traffic with each other, or with the Europeans, they estimate every thing by their present want of it: they will at one time demand a hatchet, for what at another time they will exchange for a fish-hook.

These happy people live together upon terms of perfect equality, having no distinction but of age, or personal merit; neither have they any division of property: each amicably participates the ample blessings of a delightful and extensive country: envy, fraud, and violence are precluded, natural desires are immediately and innocently indulged, and government rendered wholly unnecessary.

The States of Holland, to whom the colony of Surinam originally belonged, made it over to the Dutch West-India company; but that company not being in a condition to send thither the necessary supplies, made over a third part of their share to the magistrates of Amsterdam, and another third part to Mynheer Van Aarsens, lord of Sommelsdyk. Hence this colony is the joint property of the West-India company, the city of Amsterdam, and the lord of Sommelsdyk, but the sovereignty is invested in the states-general. Accordingly five directors of this colony are chosen by the city of Amsterdam, four by the West-India company, and one by the lord of Sommelsdyk, but the governor must be approved by the states-general as well as by the directors. The whole colony is at present in a very flourishing condition, and carries on a great trade in various commodities.

Surinam, the capital, gives name to the adjacent district, which is at least 100 miles in circumference. It stands on a river of the same name, which is navigable for near 100 miles up the country, and commanded by several forts, particularly that of Zelandria, situated about

about six miles from the entrance; near which fortress is the small town of Paramairambo.

About 25 leagues from Surinam is the colony of Berbice, so called from a river of the same name. Fort Nassau is the seat of government.

There are several settlements and plantations on the river Conya, which form a part of the colony of Berbice.

We might here mention, as connected with Surinam, the Dutch colonies of Demerary and Isequeibo, on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the British arms in 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition; but the report seems not to have had much weight, for the colonies were left in a defenceless state, and soon after retaken by a French frigate.

C H A P. XVI.

DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA IN POSSESSION OF THE NATIVES.

SECTION I.

A M A Z O N I A.

THIS extensive country derived its name from the Spaniards under the command of Orellana, being opposed by troops of women when they entered the river. The female warriors vied in heroism with the men; and from this circumstance the country was called Amazonia, or the country of the Amazons.

It is bounded on the north by Terra Firma, on the south by Paraguay or La Plata, on the east by part of Brasil and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Peru. It is 1200 miles in length, and 960 in breadth.

We have already mentioned the river of Amazons as the largest in the known world, and shall only add, that, in the long course of this prodigious river, which is 5000 miles, there are several straits, or narrow passages, where the velocity of the current is very great.

No European nation has yet made any settlement in this country. Indeed, very little of it is known, except along the west banks of the river, and the west frontiers of the Portuguese colonies in Brasil.

The air is cooler here than might be well expected so near the equator, which proceeds from the heavy rains, that occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year; and from the cloudy weather, and shortness of the days, which never exceed twelve hours. A brisk easterly wind also cools the air, which blows from the Atlantic Ocean quite through the country, so strong, that vessels are thereby enabled to sail against the stream, and perform a voyage up the river Amazons almost as soon as down it, which requires eight or ten months. Here are terrible storms of thunder and lightning during the time of the rains.

The face of the country is very beautiful, and the soil fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, ananas or pine-apples, guavas, bananas, and other tropical fruits; cedar, ironwood, so called from its weight and density, red wood, oak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying woods and drugs; together with cotton, tobacco, sugar, maize, cassava root, yams, potatoes, sarsaparilla, and canela, or spurious cinnamon.

They have store of excellent honey, balm, wild fowl, and venison, in the woods, which also abound with tygers, wild boars, buffalos, &c. The honey is exquisite, and the balm good against all wounds. Parrots are as numerous here as pigeons in England. They have vast numbers of fish of all sorts in the rivers and lakes; and, among others, manatees, or sea-cows, that are amphibious, and feed on the banks; and tortoises, of a large size and delicate taste; but the fishers must be upon their guard against crocodiles, alligators, and water-serpents.

The natives, like almost all the Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They have a taste for the imitative arts, especially sculpture and painting, and are good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise-shells or hard stones; their chissels, planes, and wim-

bles, of the teeth and horns of wild beasts; and their canoes are hollowed trees. They spin and weave cotton garments themselves; and their houses and huts are of wood, thatch, and clay. Their arms, in general, are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish-skins. They are such good archers, that they kill fish in the water with their arrows, which they eat without bread or salt. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or caciques; for it is observable, that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, as requiring by far a much a less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia by which the chiefs are distinguished are a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of lions teeth or claws about their middle, and a wooden sword in their hand. Both sexes sometimes wear mantles of the skins of beasts or cotton, but generally go naked. In some districts the men thrust pieces of cane through their ears and under lips, and hang glass beads at the gristle of their noses, which bob to and fro when they speak; but in others they wear plates of gold at their ears and nostrils. All these nations allow of polygamy, or a plurality of wives and concubines; and the women here, as in the other American nations, do the most laborious work. They worship the images of their ancient heroes, or subordinate deities; but have no temples, or orders of priests among them.

Here are a people called Omaguas, who, to render their children what they call beautiful, flat the fore and hind parts of the head, which gives them a monstrous appearance. This practice is strictly kept up among them; and they make a jest of the other inhabitants of Amazonia, calling them *calabash-heads*.

HISTORY OF AMAZONIA.

GONZALO Pizarro, brother to the famous adventurous Marquis Pizarro, conqueror of Peru, was the first who undertook to explore the climes of Amazonia. Preparatory to the expedition, he raised an army, composed of some Spanish veterans, horse and foot, together with about 4000 Indians. The latter were principally employed in carrying the baggage, and driving a great number of Indian sheep, hogs, &c. before them, for the subsistence of the army by the way. Thus prepared, he set out from Quito about Christmas, in the year 1539. A dreadful earthquake, and a terrible storm, which lasted near fifty days, greatly impeded his march, and many of his Indians died through the severity of the weather. After surmounting innumerable difficulties, they arrived at a province called Cumaco, where they found plenty of provisions, a great number of cinnamon trees, and many naked inhabitants. Here Gonzalo left the principal part of his people, taking with him only a few of the most active to search for a pass into the neighbouring country; for hitherto they had been enveloped with mountains and woods, through the latter of which they were forced to cut their way, and in the former they endured astonishing hardships.

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With inexpressible labour and suffering they came at length to a province, called Cuca, which was more populous than any they had formerly passed. Here provisions were plentiful, and the cacique, or king of the country, came in a peaceable manner to welcome them, and brought them provisions.

In these parts they remained two months, in expectation of the arrival of those Spaniards, whom they had left in Cumaco, and had directed to follow them by such traces and marks as they should find of the way they had taken before them. Their companions being come up and refreshed after their journey, they marched by the banks of a great river, for the space of 50 leagues, in all which way they neither found bridge or ford.

At length they came to a place, where the whole river falls from the top of a rock above 200 fathoms high, which cataract makes a noise that is heard above six leagues from the place; at which though the Spaniards were amazed, yet it was much more wonderful to see above 40 or 50 leagues lower, that immense quantity of water contracted and straitened within a channel made by one great rock. This channel is so narrow, that from one side to the other, it is not above 20 feet wide; but so high, that the top where the Spaniards made their bridge was 200 fathoms from the water. Gonzalo Pizarro, and his captains, considering there was no other passage to be found on the river, and that it was necessary to pass to the other side, because the country was barren on that side where they were, agreed to make a bridge over the top of the rock.

The Indians, on the opposite side, though few in number, stoutly defended the pass, but were driven from it by the fire of the muskets. The pass being now clear, the Spaniards fell to work on the bridge of timber, which cost much labour before the first beam could be passed over to the opposite rock; by the help of which, a second was more easily laid, and then other pieces of timber; so that by degrees they formed a bridge, over which both men and horses passed securely: after this they marched by the side of the river over mountains covered so thick with wood, that they were forced to open their way again with hatchets. Through these difficulties they came at length to a country called Guema, where the Spaniards, and their Indian servants, were forced to sustain themselves with herbs and roots, and with tender sprouts of trees. Thus with famine and perpetual rains many of the Spaniards fell sick and died. They arrived afterwards at a country, where the natives were more civilized than in the former. These eat maize, or Indian corn, and clothed themselves with garments of cotton; but still the climate was subject to violent rains.

While they staid in this place they sent out parties every way, to see if they could discover a better country; but they met with nothing but wild mountains full of dogs, lakes and moorish grounds, over which was no passage. Whereupon they resolved to build a brigantine, to ferry over from one side of the river to the other, which was become two leagues broad. In order to this, the first thing to be done was to set up a smith's forge, for nails and iron work, which they made of the shoes of the horses they had killed for food, and some iron bars they had carried with them; but iron was now become more scarce than gold.

Gonzalo Pizarro, though chief commander, was the first that laid his hand to the ax to hew down the timber, and to make the charcoal, which was requisite to forge the iron, and always the most forward in every menial office, that by thus giving a good example, none might take occasion to excuse himself. The resin, which issued from certain trees, served them instead of pitch, and their old shirts and rags were made use of instead of oakum, to caulk the seams of their vessel, which being in this manner finished, they launched into the water with great joy and triumph, imagining that hereby they should quickly escape out of all their

dangers and difficulties. But it proved otherwise, for a few days, shewed the contrary, and gave them cause to repent that they had ever made it.

All the gold they had gathered, which amounted to above the value of 100,000 pieces of eight, with abundance of emeralds, some of which were of great value, as also their iron and iron work, and whatsoever was of any esteem, they loaded in their vessel: and such as were weak and sick, and not able to travel, were also put on board. Then after a journey almost of 200 leagues, they departed from this place, taking their course down the stream, some by water, and others by land, keeping such a convenient distance from each other, that at night they always joined and lodged together, which journey was performed with great difficulty; for those on the land were forced to open a great part of the way with hatchet and bill, and those on the water were put to hard labour, to keep the vessel from being forcibly carried down by the current from the company on shore. When at any time their passage was interrupted by some mountain, so that they could not keep near the river, they ferried to the other side by help of their vessel, and four canoes they had made; but this was a great hindrance to them, and very grievous to men starving and perishing with hunger.

Having, in this manner, travelled for the space of two months, they at length met with certain Indians, who by signs, and some words which were understood by their Indian servants, gave them intelligence, that about ten days journey from thence they would find a country well peopled, stocked with provisions, and abounding with gold and other riches, of which they were in pursuit; and further signified to them, that this country was situated on the banks of another great river, which joined and fell into that wherein they now were. The Spaniards being encouraged with this news, Gonzalo Pizarro made Francisco de Orellana captain of his brigantine, and put fifty soldiers on board, giving them orders to pass down the stream to that place where the two rivers met, and that there leaving the goods he had then on board, he should load his vessel with provisions, and return towards them with all speed imaginable, to relieve them in their distress; many of the Spaniards being already dead, and more Indians, who from 4000 were now reduced to half the number.

According to these orders, Francisco de Orellana entered on the voyage, and in the space of three days without oars or sail, only by force of the current, was carried to the confluence of the two rivers, mentioned by the Indians, but found no provisions there: whereupon Orellana, pretending it was impossible to return to Pizarro against the stream, resolved to set up for himself; to continue his voyage to the mouth of the river, and then go over into Spain and obtain the government of those countries for himself: but this cruel resolution was opposed by many of those who were then with him. They told him plainly, that he was not to exceed the orders of his captain-general, and that it was inhuman to forsake his companions in their great distress, knowing how useful and necessary that brigantine was to them. In this point, none was more zealous than friar Gaspar Carvajal, and a young native of Badajoz, named Hernando Sanchez de Vargas, whom those of the contrary opinion made their chief, and were so warm in their debates on this subject, that the quarrel had come to blows, had not Orellana, with fair words, appeased the tumult: however, he managed so artfully afterwards with those who had opposed his intentions, that he inticed them all over to his party; and then rudely treated the friar, whom he had exposed to the same famine and misery, (had it not been for respect to his habit and profession) as he did Sanchez de Vargas, whom he left in that desert, encompassed with high mountains on the one side, and a great river on the other, to perish by famine.]

Francisco de Orellana afterwards found some provisions amongst the natives on the river below; but because the women came out at first with their husbands to oppose his landing, he gave it the name of the River of Amazons.

Proceeding yet farther down this river, they found these Indians more civil than the other, who received them amicably, admiring the brigantine, and men so strangely habited. These treated the Spaniards hospitably, and furnished them with as much provision as they had occasion for. Orellana remained here, therefore, several weeks, and built another brigantine, for they were very much streightened for room in the first; and having fitted it up as well they were able, they ventured out to sea, sailing along the coast of Caribiana, about 200 leagues to the northward, till they arrived at the island of the Holy Trinity, having escaped such dangers that they often gave themselves over for lost. At this island Orellana bought a ship, with which he sailed into Spain, where he requested his majesty's commission, for the conquest and government of the country of the Amazons, as he thought proper to stile it.

To make this enterprize appear the more desirable, he alledged, that it was a country abounding with gold, silver, and precious stones, and in testimony thereof produced the riches which he had brought with him; whereupon his majesty granted the request he made, for the government of what he should conquer there; and Orellana was joined by 500 volunteers, the greatest part of them men of rank, with whom he embarked at St. Sucar, for the river Amazon, in the year 1554; but he lost one of his ships in his voyage thither, and met with so many difficulties and misfortunes before he had sailed 100 leagues up the river, that he abandoned the enterprize, and died on his return home.

Gonzalo Pizarro, who was left in such distress after Francisco de Orellana ran away with the brigantine, first built 10 or 12 canoes, and then floats to pass from one side of the river to the other, as often as his march was interrupted by impassable mountains or morasses, and proceeded in that manner down the river, in hopes to meet the brigantine they had dispatched for provisions. At the end of two months they arrived at the point where two rivers met; but instead of their brigantine, and the provisions they expected to meet with they found only Hernan de Vargas, who, with constancy of mind becoming a man of honour, had endured, with great resolution, famine, and all the miseries, to which he was exposed in that solitude. From him they received a particular account of the villainy of the perfidious Orellana, which Pizarro could scarce credit, having hitherto reposed an entire confidence in him.

The general, however, cheered his men, and encouraged them with hopes of better fortune, telling them, that they ought, like Spaniards, to bear with equality of mind these labours and disappointments; that the more danger, the more honour, and the greater their renown would be in history, which would transmit the fame of their adventures to future ages. The soldiers, observing the cheerfulness of their general, who had most cause to resent Orellana's usage, took heart, and continued their march by the banks of the river, sometimes on one side, and sometimes on the other.

But the difficulty of carrying the horses over upon floats (for there still remained about 50 of them) cannot be expressed, any more than the famine they were exposed to. However, the Indians who remained alive served their masters with great faithfulness and affection, in these extremities, bringing them herbs, roots and wild fruit, snakes and other vermin they found in their mountains, all which went down with the Spaniards; nor could they have subsisted without such kind of food.

Gonzalo Pizarro, being now resolved to return to Peru, left the river, and took his way more to the

northward, which proved shorter by 100 leagues than the way they came, but no less difficult, being forced frequently to cut their way through the woods; and for want of other provisions they now eat up all their remaining horses and dogs; for the 4000 Indians, who used to purvey for them, all died in this expedition; and there were but 80 Spaniards who returned to Quito alive, and these almost without cloaths, and so sunburnt and emaciated with the fatigue and want of food, that their nearest friends scarce knew them.

With such insupportable hardships and hazards did the first Spanish adventurers struggle in search of gold, even when they had before acquired enough to have satisfied the most boundless avarice. Gonzalo Pizarro, who was one of the proprietors of the mines of Potosi, had not amassed less than 1,000,000 of crowns before he entered upon this expedition.

Peter de Orfua, who afterwards obtained a commission from the governor of Peru, in the year 1550, to subdue the provinces bordering on the river Amazon, embarked on the river Xauxa in Peru with 700 armed Spaniards, and 2000 Indians, and sailed down the stream 200 or 300 leagues, till he came to the confluence of the two rivers Amazon and Xauxa, and continuing his voyage afterwards 200 leagues farther, was killed in a mutiny of his men, which put a period to that enterprize.

Several other adventurers made the like attempts afterwards, but most of them proved unfortunate, till two monks and some soldiers, who set out with John de Palacios from Quito in Peru, in the year 1635, and embarking on the river Amazon, where it first becomes navigable, sailed the whole length of it, till they arrived at Paria in Brasil, which lies on the south side of the mouth of this great river: but their captain John Palacios was killed in a skirmish with the natives in their passage.

The friars having given an account of their voyage to the governor of Brasil, he ordered sloops and boats to be provided, on which he embarked 70 Portuguese and 2000 Indians; and in October 1637 ordered them to sail up the river, under the command of Texeira, a mariner of great skill and experience, who, by the help of the easterly wind, which generally blows here, sailed up against the current, till he arrived at Les Reys, a town of Quito in Peru; but the river not being navigable higher for his vessels, he left them there, and went by land to the city of Quito, where he was kindly received by the Spanish governor, and furnished with whatever he wanted to facilitate his return to Brasil. The governor sent two Spanish jesuits down the river with him, ordering them to embark for Spain, when they arrived at Brasil, and communicate the observations they should make in this voyage to his Catholic majesty; and embarking again at Les Reyes, on the river Amazon, with the two jesuits, in the month of February 1638-9, arrived at Paria in Brasil the December following; from whence the jesuits went over to Spain, and published a narrative of their voyage in 1640.

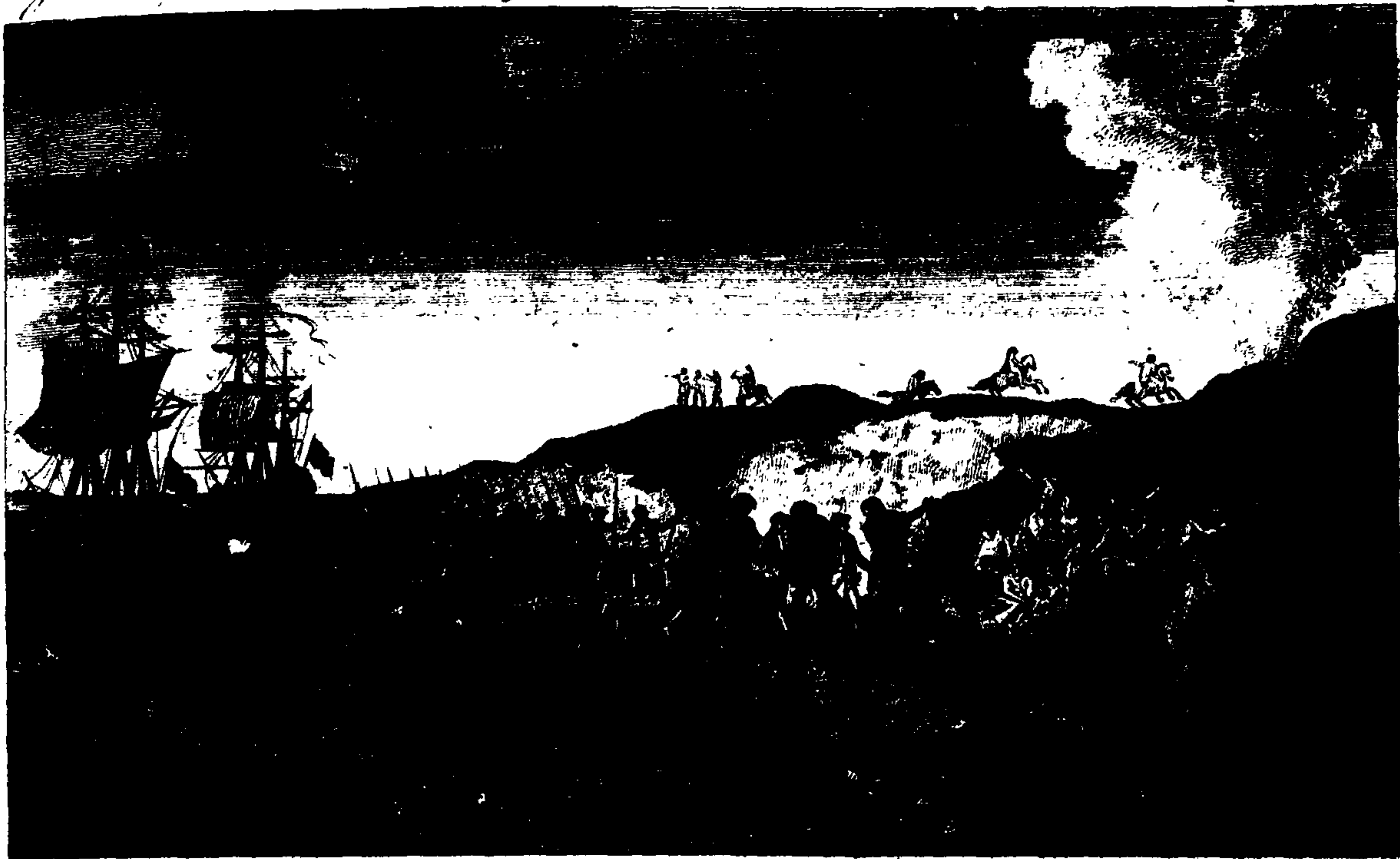
SECTION II.

TERRA MAGELLANICA, OR PATAGONIA.

THIS country, which lies a little to the northward of the Straits of Magellan, was called by the Spaniards Terra Magellanica, as are the Straits denominated the Straits of Magellan, from Ferdinando Magellan, a Portuguese of that name in the service of Spain, who discovered them in the year 1520.

The appellation of Patagonia was derived from a principal tribe of its inhabitants called Patagons. The whole country, which goes under the name of Patagonia, extends from Chili and Paraguay to the utmost extremity of South America, that is, from 35 almost to 54 deg. of south lat. being 700 miles long and 300 broad where widest. The lofty mountains, called the Andes,

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Interview between Commodore (now Lord) BYRON and the Natives of
PATAGONIA.



People of **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, *with their Habitations.*

Andes, traverse the whole country from north to south. The northern parts contain an almost inexhaustible stock of large timber; but in the southern districts scarce a tree (fit for any mechanical purpose) is to be seen.

Here is good pasturage, and incredible numbers of wild horned cattle and horses, which were brought hither by the Spaniards, and have increased amazingly. The east coast is mostly low land, with few or no good harbours. One of the best is Port St. Julian.

Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, as the Patagons, from which the country takes its name; the Pampas, the Cossares, &c.

The country and inhabitants of Patagonia are mentioned by an Italian author, who wrote an account of Magellan's voyage round the world; but the most accurate, authentic, and interesting details, are those of Commodore, afterwards Admiral Byron, and Captain Wallis, who have ascertained several points which before were matters of doubt, and from whom we shall give the following conjunctive account.

Interview with the Natives. Description of their Persons, Dress, and Weapons. Food. Language. Visit from the Natives. Productions of the Country, &c.

COMMODORE BYRON relates, that when he came to anchor on this coast, about two miles from the shore, he could plainly see with his glass a number of horsemen, riding backwards and forwards directly a-breast of the ship, and waving something white, as an invitation to the people to come on shore. In consequence of this, the Commodore, attended by some of his officers and seamen, advanced in his boat towards the beach, and, on a near approach, saw about 500 people, some on foot, but the greater part on horseback. They drew up upon a stony spot, and kept waving and hallooing, which our people supposed were invitations to land.

According to the account of the voyage of the Wager, this was the spot where the crew, as they were passing the Strait in their boat, after the loss of the vessel, saw a number of horsemen, who waved what appeared to be white handkerchiefs, inviting them to come on shore, which they wished to have done, but were prevented by a gale of wind, that obliged them to stand out to sea. The writer says, they were in doubt whether these people were Europeans wrecked on the coast, or natives of the country.

Though no weapons were seen among the natives, the Commodore deemed it prudent to make signs that they should retire to a little distance, with which they immediately complied. They continued to shout most vociferously; and the Commodore having landed with his people, drew them up upon the beach, with his officers at their head, giving strict orders that none of them should quit their station till he should give the signal. He then advanced alone towards the Indians, and perceiving that they retreated, made signs that one of them should come near. Accordingly a person, who afterwards appeared to be a chief, approached. He was of gigantic stature, and seemed to realize the tales of monsters in human shape. He was not measured; but the Commodore judged, from the proportion of his stature to his own, that it could not be much less than seven feet.

When this frightful Colossus came up, he and Mr. Byron muttered something to each other as a salutation. The Commodore then walked with him towards his companions, to whom, as he advanced, he made signs to sit down, and they all readily complied. There were among them many women, who seemed to be proportionably large; and few of the men were less than the chief who came forward to meet the Commodore. He had heard the voices of the savages very loud at a distance, and when he came near, perceived a great number of very old men, who were chanting some unintelligible words in the most doleful cadence, with an

air of serious solemnity, which inclined him to think that it was a religious ceremony.

Having looked round upon these enormous goblins with no small astonishment, and, with some difficulty, made those that were still galloping up sit down with the rest, the Commodore took out a quantity of yellow and white beads, which he distributed among them, and which they received with very strong expressions of pleasure. He then took out a whole piece of green silk ribbon, and giving the end of it into the hand of one of them, made the person that sat next take hold of it, and so on as far as it would reach. During this time they sat very quietly; nor did any of those that held the ribbon attempt to pull it from the rest; though it was easily perceived that they were still more delighted with it than with the beads. While the ribbon was thus extended, Mr. Byron took out a pair of scissors, and cut it between each two of the Indians that held it, so that he left about a yard in the possession of every one, which he afterwards tied about their heads, where they suffered it to remain, without so much as touching it, while he was with them. Their peaceable and orderly behaviour, on this occasion, did them honour, especially as the presents could not extend to the whole company. Neither impatience to share the new finery, or curiosity to gain a nearer view of what was doing, brought any one from the station allotted them.

It appeared evident to Mr. Byron, that the Indians on whom he had conferred these ornamental presents were not entirely strangers to European commodities, as, upon a nicer observation, he remarked one woman who had bracelets, either of brass or very pale gold, upon her arms; and some beads of blue glass, strung upon two long queues of hair, which, being parted at the top, hung down over each shoulder before her. She was of a most enormous size, and her face most hideously painted. The Commodore endeavoured, by every possible means, to learn where she procured the beads and bracelets, but could not effect it through want of being sufficiently understood.

It would be very natural for those who have read Gay's fables, if they form an idea of an Indian almost naked, returning to his fellows in the woods adorned with European trinkets, to think of the monkey who had seen the world: yet before we despise their fondness for glass beads, ribbons, and other things which are held in no estimation among us, we should consider that, in themselves, the ornaments of savage and civil life are equal; and that those who live nearly in a state of nature have nothing that resembles glass so much as glass resembles a diamond. The value which we set upon a diamond is more capricious than the value which they set upon glass. The love of ornament seems to be an universal principle in human nature; and the splendid transparency and regular figure of a bead are the qualities that, by the constitution of our nature, excite pleasing ideas; and although in one of these qualities the diamond exceeds the glass, its value is much more than in proportion to the difference. The pleasure which it gives among us is principally by conferring distinction and gratifying vanity, which is independent of natural taste, which is gratified by certain hues of figures, to which, for that reason, we give the name of beauty. It should be remembered, that an Indian is more distinguished by a glass button or a bead, than any individual among us by a diamond; though, perhaps, the same sacrifice is not made to his vanity, as the possession of his finery is rather a testimony of his good fortune than of his influence or power, in consequence of his having what, as the common medium of all earthly possessions is supposed to confer, virtual superiority and intrinsic advantage.

One of the men produced the bowl of a tobacco-pipe, which was made of a red earth; but the Commodore soon perceived they had no tobacco among them. Indeed, this man gave him to understand that he wanted some. Upon this he beckoned to his people, who had remained upon the beach drawn up in the order he had left

left them, and three or four of them ran forward, supposing that he wanted them. The Indians, who had been observed to keep their eyes continually upon them, no sooner saw some of them advance, than they all rose up with a great clamour, and were leaving the place, as imagined, to get their arms, which were probably left at a little distance. To prevent mischief, and put an end to the alarm, the Commodore ran to meet the people, who were advancing in consequence of the signal given, and told them, as soon as he was got within hearing, that he would have only one of them come up with all the tobacco he could collect from the rest. When the Indians perceived this they recovered from their surprize, and every one returned to his station, except a very old man, who came up to the Commodore, and sung a long song. Before the song was well finished, an officer came up with the tobacco, and indicated a laughable astonishment in his countenance, upon perceiving himself, though six feet two inches high, become at once a pigmy among giants.

After the Commodore had presented the tobacco, four or five of the chief men came up to him, and, as he understood by the signs they made, wanted him to mount one of the horses, and go with them to their habitations; but as it would have been highly imprudent to comply, signs were made to them, that the Commodore must return to the ship, at which they expressed much concern, and sat down in their former stations.

During this dumb-shew conference an old man often laid his head down upon the stones, and, shutting his eyes for about half a minute, afterwards pointed first to his mouth, and then to the hills, meaning, as the Commodore imagined, that if he would stay till the morning, they would furnish him with some provisions; but this offer he was obliged to decline. When he left them not one of them offered to follow, but, as long as they could be seen, continued quiet in their stations.

Commodore Byron's description of his first interview with the natives of Patagonia is, in general, confirmed by that of Captain Wallis, who visited this country two years after him. That navigator relates, that, when he approached Cape Virgin Mary, he saw several men riding upon the point of it, who made signals for the people on board to come ashore. Having anchored in a bay close under the south side of the cape, the natives continued a-breast of the ship all night, making great fires, and frequently shouting very loud. At day-light great numbers of them were seen in motion, making signals for our people to land.

Having taken the necessary precautions, and left particular orders on board to bring the ship's broadside to bear upon the landing-place, Captain Wallis went in his barge, attended by some officers and men, properly armed, and having reached the beach, before he left the barge, made signs to the natives to return to some distance, with which they immediately complied.

Captain Wallis having landed with several officers, and ordered the marines to be drawn up, made signs to the natives to approach, and directed them to sit down in a semi-circle, which they did with great order and cheerfulness. The Captain then distributed among them several knives, scissars, buttons, beads, combs, and divers toys, particularly some ribbons to the women, which were received with equal pleasure and respect.

After the distribution of these presents, Captain Wallis endeavoured to make them understand that he had other things to dispose of, but expected some articles in return. He then caused some hatchets and bill-hooks to be produced, and pointed to some guanicoes that happened to be near, and some ostriches which he saw dead among them, making signs that he wanted to eat at the same time; but they either could not, or would not, understand him; for though they seemed very desirous of the hatchets and bill-hooks, they gave not the least intimation that they would give any provision in return. These people, in general, had horses.

With respect to the persons of the natives, Commodore Byron expresses the highest admiration at seeing 500 people, the shortest of whom were at least four inches taller than any even of those of extraordinary stature amongst us, all bulky in proportion to their height; whereas with us scarcely any bear that proportion; and a man who should measure only six feet two inches, and equally exceed a stout well-set man, of common stature, in breadth and muscle, would strike us rather as a giant than an individual of ordinary form.

Captain Wallis, at his first interview with the natives, caused those that appeared to be the tallest among them to be measured. One of these was six feet seven inches high; and several were six feet five and six feet six inches. They were well made, robust, and bony; but their hands and feet were remarkably small. Their complexion was a dark copper colour, like that of the Indians in North America. Their hair was strait, and nearly as harsh as hogs bristles. It was tied back with a cotton string: but neither sex wore any head-dress. Their teeth were very white, even, and well set.

The chief who first came up to Commodore Byron had the skin of some wild beast thrown over his shoulders, as a Scotch Highlander wears his plaid, and was painted so as to make the most hideous appearance he had ever beheld. Round one eye was a large circle of white, a circle of black surrounded the other, and the rest of his face was streaked with paint of different colours. The whole group seen by the Commodore were painted and clothed nearly in the same manner. The circles round the two eyes were in no instance of one colour; but they were not universally black and white, some being white and red, and some red and black. Except the skins, which they wore with the hair inwards, most of them were naked; a few only of them having a kind of boot upon their legs, with a short pointed stick fastened to each heel, which served as a spur.

It appears from the account of Captain Wallis, that the chief clothing of these people is composed of the skins of the guanico, sewed together into pieces about six feet long, and five wide. These are wrapped round the body, and fastened with a girdle, with the hairy side inwards. Some of them had a square piece of cloth, made of the downy hair of the guanico, through which a hole being cut for the head, the rest hung round them as low as the knee. They are described by Captain Wallis as wearing the buskins, or boots, and painting themselves in the *outré* manner mentioned by Commodore Byron, with this difference only, that the eye-lids of all the young women were painted black.

The Patagonians commonly carry a missile weapon of a singular kind tucked into a girdle. It consists of two round stones, covered with leather, each weighing about a pound, which are fastened to the two ends of a string about eight feet long. This is used as a sling, one stone being kept in the hand, and the other whirled round the head till it is supposed to have acquired sufficient force, and then discharged at the object. They are so expert in the management of this double-headed shot, that they will hit a mark not larger than a shilling with both the stones, at the distance of fifteen yards. It is not, however, their custom to strike either the guanico or the ostrich with them in the chace, but they discharge them so as that the cord comes against the legs of the ostrich, or two of the legs of the guanico, and is twisted round them by the force and swing of the balls, so that the animal being unable to run, becomes an easy prey to the hunter.

With respect to food, our people, while they staid on shore, observed the natives eat some of their flesh meat raw, particularly the paunch of an ostrich, without any other preparation or cleaning, than just turning it inside out, and shaking it.

The natives talked much, and some of them called out to Mr. Wallis Ca-hi-ta-ne, but when they were spoken to in Spanish, Portuguese, French and Dutch, they

they made no reply. Our people could distinguish only one word of their own language, which was Che-vow. They supposed it to be a salutation, as they always pronounced it when they shook hands with them, and when by signs they asked for any thing. When they were spoken to in English they repeated the words with ease, and got by heart the words "Englishmen, come on shore."

The disposition of these people will be best displayed by a recital of their deportment during the incidents which occurred on their visit to Captain Wallis on board his ship.

When a proposal was made to them by signs that the Captain would take some of them on board if they were desirous to go, about one hundred eagerly offered to visit the ship; but it was not deemed prudent to admit more than eight of the number. They jumped into the boat with the joy and alacrity of children going to a fair, and having no intention of mischief against our people, discovered no apprehension of harm from them. They sang several of their country songs while they were in the boat, and when they came on board did not express either the curiosity or wonder which the multiplicity of objects, to them equally strange and stupendous that at once presented themselves, might be supposed to excite. When taken down into the cabin they looked about with great indifference, till one of them happened to cast his eyes upon a looking-glass, which afforded them infinite diversion. They advanced, retreated, and played a thousand tricks before it, laughing excessively, and talking very earnestly to each other. Some beef, pork, biscuit, and other articles of the ship's provisions being set before them they eat of them indiscriminately; but would drink nothing but water.

When conducted throughout the ship they looked at nothing with much attention, except the animals. They examined the hogs and sheep with some curiosity, and were delighted to the highest degree with the Guinea hens and turkies. They did not seem to desire any thing except apparel, and only one of them, an old man, asked for that. Captain Wallis gratified him with a pair of shoes and buckles, and gave to each of the others a canvas bag, in which were put some needles ready threaded, a few slips of cloth, a knife, a pair of scissors, some twine, a few beads, a comb and a looking-glass, with some new six-pences and half-pence, through which a hole had been drilled that was fitted with a ribbon to hang round the neck. They were offered some leaves of tobacco rolled up into what are called segars. They smoked a little, but did not seem to enjoy it. When they were shewn the great guns they did not appear to have any notion of their use. When the marines were drawn up in order to go through part of their exercise, and the first volley was fired, they were struck with astonishment and terror. The old man, in particular, threw himself on the deck, pointed to the muskets, and then striking his breast with his hand lay some time motionless with his eyes shut. By this it was supposed he meant to indicate that he was not unacquainted with fire arms and their fatal effects. The rest seeing the crew merry and finding themselves unhurt, soon resumed their cheerfulness, and heard the second and third volley fired without much emotion; but the old man continued prostrate upon the deck some time, and never recovered his spirits till the firing was over.

Being made to understand by signs that the ship was proceeding farther, and that they must go on shore, they discovered much reluctance to comply: all, however, except the old man and one more, were got into the boat without much difficulty; but these stopped at the gang-way, where the old man turned about, went towards the stern, and stood some time without speaking. He then uttered what was supposed to be a prayer, as he frequently lifted up his hands and eyes to the heavens, and spoke in a manner and tone different from what had been observed in their common conver-

sation. His prayer seemed to be rather sung than said; so that our people could not distinguish one word from another.

When Captain Wallis intimated to him that it was expedient for him to go into the boat, he pointed to the sun, and then moving his hand round to the west paused, looked in his face, laughed, and pointed to the shore. By this it was easy to understand that he wished to stay on board till sun-set, and no little pains were taken to convince him of the necessity of his going into the boat. At length, however, he went over the ship's side with his companion; and when the boat put off they all began to sing, and continued their merriment till they got on shore. When they landed, great numbers of those on shore pressed eagerly to get into the boat; but the officers on board having positive orders to bring none of them off, to their great mortification prevented them.

The most remarkable animal of this country is the Guanico, which in size, make and colour resembles a deer; but it has a hump on its back, and no horns. They are very shy and very swift. Some parts abound with seals, of which upon one spot our people killed above fifty, many of them larger than a bullock. The tygers here are very ravenous. A part of the ship's crew being sent on shore to fetch some guanicos, which had been shot the night before, they found nothing left except the bones, the tygers having devoured the flesh; and even cracked the bones to come at the marrow. An officer upon an excursion shot a tyger-cat, a small but very fierce animal, for though it was much wounded it maintained a very sharp contest with a dog for a considerable time before it was killed. There are abundance of hares, the flesh of which is very white and of excellent flavour. A great number of dogs were seen with the natives, which were supposed to be kept for the purpose of chasing the wild animals which serve them for food. The horses were well made and nimble, and in general fourteen hands high. These as well as the dogs seemed to be of a Spanish breed. The horse furniture were, a saddle, stirrups and bridle. The men had wooden spurs. One in particular was observed to have a large pair of such as are worn in Spain. The women had no spurs. They rode astride, and, as well as the men, evinced great resolution and dexterity in horsemanship, for they fearlessly galloped over a spot where the stones were very loose and slippery.

In some parts of the country birds are so numerous, that Commodore Byron says, when they rose they literally darkened the sky, and as they walked the eggs were so numerous that they trod upon them. Among the rest was one very remarkable for its plumage and magnitude. The head resembled that of an eagle, except that it had a large comb upon it. Round the neck was a white ruff exactly resembling a lady's tippet; the feathers on the back were as black as jet, and as bright as the finest polish could render that mineral. The legs were remarkably strong and large, the talons were like those of an eagle, except that they were not so sharp, and the wings, when extended, measured from point to point no less than eight feet. The ostrich is very large here, and constitutes part of the food of the natives. Our people eat of their eggs, and thought them very good.

There seemed to be plenty of fish on the coast, and many porpoises were seen swimming after the ships that were as white as snow, with black spots, a very uncommon but beautiful sight.

Of vegetables there is no particular account; indeed, the country is represented as being barren in the extreme.

Passage up the Straits of Magellan. Account of the Coast on each side. Incidents. Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

COMMODORE Byron observes, that on his departure from Patagonia, to pass through the Straits of Magellan, his course through the first narrow was very rapid, the tide being then remarkably strong. The people saw a single Indian on the south shore, who kept waving to them as long as they were in sight. They saw also some guanicos on the hills, though it had been said by a former navigator that there were none on that shore.

The ship coming to anchor on account of foul winds off St. Bartholomew's Island, six Indians came down to the water-side, and continued waving and hallowing for a long time; but as our people wanted rest the Commodore was unwilling to employ them in hoisting out a boat, and the Indians, seeing their labour fruitless, at length departed.

The Commodore going in his boat in search of Fresh Water Bay, landed with an officer upon Sandy Point, where they found plenty of wood and very good water, and for four or five miles the shore was exceeding pleasant. Over the point there is a fine level country, with a soil that, to all appearance, is very rich, for the ground was covered with flowers of various kinds that perfumed the air with their fragrance, and among them were berries almost innumerable where the blossoms had been shed. The grass was very good, and intermixed with a great number of peas in full blossom.

Among this luxuriance of herbage were seen many hundreds of birds feeding, which, from their form and the uncommon beauty of their plumage, our people called painted geese.

In the course of their walk, during which the Commodore and officer found great plenty of fine fresh water, though not the bay they sought for, they fell in with great numbers of the huts or wigwams of the Indians, which appeared to have been very lately deserted, as in some the fires they had kindled were hardly extinguished. They were in little recesses of the woods, and always close to fresh water. In many places were found plenty of wild cellery, and a variety of plants, which might prove of great benefit to seamen after a long voyage. The keen air of this place made the people so voraciously hungry, that they could have eaten three times their allowance: the Commodore was therefore pleased to find some of them employed in hauling the seine, and others on shore with their guns. Sixty very large mullets were taken with the seine, and the gunners had good sport, for the place abounded with geese, teal, snipes, and other birds that were excellent food.

Captain Wallis, on his departure from Patagonia, turned into the Straits of Magellan with the flood tide between Cape Virgin Mary and the Sandy Point that resembles Dungeness. When the ship got abreast of this point, they stood close into the shore, where they observed two guanicos, and many of the natives on horseback, who seemed to be in pursuit of them. When the horsemen came near they ran up the country at a great rate, and were pursued by the hunters with their slings in their hands ready for the cast, but neither of them was taken while our people were within sight.

Having come to anchor about three miles from the shore, the natives made several large fires a-breast of the ship, and at break of day about 400 of them were seen encamped in a fine green valley between two hills, with their horses feeding beside them.

Observing great numbers of the natives on horse a-breast of the ship, and being given to understand by an officer, that this was the place where Commodore Byron had the conference with the tall man, Captain Wallis sent two officers to the shore, but with orders not to land, as the ships were at too great a distance to protect them. The officers, on their return, reported,

that the boat having lain upon her oars very near the beach, the natives came down in great numbers, whom they knew to be the same persons they had seen before, with many others, particularly women and children, that when they perceived our people had no design to land they seemed to be greatly disappointed; and those who had been on board the ship waded off to the boat, making signs for it to advance, and pronouncing the words they had been taught, "Englishmen come on shore," very loud, many times; that when they could not get the people to land, they were with great difficulty prevented from getting into the boat; that they presented them with some bread, tobacco, and a few toys, pointing, at the same time, to some guanicoes and ostriches, and making signs that they wanted them as provisions, but that they could not make themselves understood; and finally, that finding they could obtain no refreshment, they rowed along the shore in search of fresh water, but seeing no appearance of a rivulet, they returned on board.

At Port Famine, where both our navigators touched, the Spaniards, in the year 1581, built a town, which they called Philipperille, and left in it a colony consisting of 400 persons. When the English navigator Cavendish arrived here in 1587, he found one of these unhappy wretches (which was the only one that remained) upon the beach. They had all perished for want of subsistence except 24. Twenty-three of these set out for the river Plata, and were never afterwards heard of. This man, whose name was Hernando, was brought to England by Cavendish, who called the place where he had taken him up Port Famine. It is a very fine bay, and sufficiently capacious for many ships to moor in great safety. In this place there is very good wooding and watering; and such a quantity of drift-wood, as the Commodore said would furnish a thousand sail. Many fine small fish were taken with a hook and line off the ship's side; and the seine was hauled with great success in a fine sandy bay, a little to the southward of Sedger River. A great number of birds, of various kinds, were shot, particularly geese, ducks, teal, snipes, plovers, and race-horses. The water of Sedger River is excellent, but the boats cannot get in till about the hour of flood, because it is very shallow at low water for about three quarters of a mile. Commodore Byron went up it about four miles in his boat, but the fallen trees rendered it impossible to go farther. It was found not only difficult, but dangerous, to get up thus far. The stream is very rapid, and many stumps of trees lie hidden under it. One of these made its way through the bottom of the boat, and she was full of water in an instant. The boat was got on shore, and afterwards, with great difficulty, hauled up upon the side of the river, where the hole was stopped; so that a shift was made to get her down to the mouth of the river, where she was properly repaired.

On each side of this river are the finest trees ever seen. Commodore Byron was of opinion that they would supply the British navy with the best masts in the world. Some of them are of a great height, and more than eight feet in diameter, which is proportionably more than eight yards in circumference; so that four men, joining hand in hand, could not compass them. Among others were found the pepper tree, or winter bark, in great plenty.

In the woods, notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, there are abundance of parrots and other birds, of most beautiful plumage. The Commodore every day shot geese and ducks enough to serve his own table and several others; and every one on board might have done the same. There was, indeed, great plenty of fresh provisions of all sorts; for as much fish was caught every day as served the whole ship's company. Being much on shore, the Commodore tracked many wild beasts in the sand, but never saw one. Many huts, or wigwams, were found, but not an Indian was met with.

The country between Port Famine and Cape Forward, which is distant about four leagues, is very fine; the soil appears to be pretty good; and there are three large rivers in this part, besides several brooks.

While Commodore Byron lay in Port Famine, he went with a party to Cape Forward. On setting out they intended to have gone farther, but the weather became so bad with heavy rain, that they stopped there, and made a great fire to dry their cloaths, which were wet through. From the place where they stopped the Indians had gone so lately, that the wood, which lay half burnt, where they had made their fires, was still warm; and soon after the fire was kindled they perceived that another was kindled directly opposite to it on the Terra del Fuego shore, probably as a signal, if our people had been Indians, they would have understood. The party having dried and refreshed at the fire, and the rain being abated, they walked across the cape to see how the strait ran, which they found to be about W. N. W. The hills, as far as could be seen, were of immense height, very craggy, and covered with snow from the summits to the bases.

The country along the shore to the northward is very pleasant, the ground being in many places covered with flowers, equally beautiful and fragrant with those in our gardens. Mr. Byron gives it as his opinion, that if it were not for the severity of the cold in winter, this country might, by cultivation, be rendered one of the finest in the world.

A small tent had been set close to a little rivulet, and just at the skirts of a wood, where three men had been employed in washing. They slept on shore; but soon after sun-set were awakened out of their first sleep by the roaring of some wild beasts, which the darkness of the night, and their solitary situation on this pathless desert, rendered horrid beyond imagination. The tone was deep and hollow, so that the beasts, whatever kind they might be of, were certainly large; and the men perceived that they drew nearer and nearer, as the sound every minute became more loud. From this time sleep was renounced for the night; a large fire was immediately kindled, and a constant blaze kept up. This prevented the beasts from invading the tent; but they continued to prowl round it at a little distance, with incessant howlings, till the day broke, and then, to the great joy of the affrighted sailors, disappeared. The latitude of Port Famine is 53 deg. 42 min. south; longitude 71 deg. 28 min. west.

The account of Captain Wallis confirms that of Commodore Byron with respect to the abundance of provisions in this place. He says, that during his ship's stay there, they caught fish enough to furnish one meal a day, both for the sick and the well. Great plenty of celery was also found, and pea-tops, which were boiled with peas and portable soup. Besides these were gathered great quantities of fruit, that resembled the cranberry, and the leaves of a shrub, somewhat like our thorn, which were remarkably sour. On the arrival of the ship all the crew began to look pale and meagre; many had the scurvy to a great degree, and upon others there were manifest signs of its approach, yet in a fortnight there was not a scorbutic person on board. The recovery was effected by their being on shore, eating plenty of vegetables, being obliged to wash their clothes, and keep their persons clean by daily bathing in the sea.

An officer, who was sent out in quest of anchoring places, reported, on his return, that he had been on shore at several places, where he had found plenty of wood and water close to the beach, with abundance of cranberries and wild celery. He had seen a great number of currant bushes full of fruit, though none of it was ripe; and a great variety of beautiful shrubs in blossom, bearing flowers of different colours, particularly red, purple, yellow, and white, besides great plenty of the winter's bark, a grateful spice, well known to the botanists of Europe. He shot several wild ducks, geese, gulls, a hawk, and other birds.

No. 52.

Port Egmont, so called by Commodore Byron in honour of the Earl, then First Lord of the Admiralty, is one of the finest harbours in the world, and so capacious, that the whole British navy might ride in it with perfect security from all winds. In every part of this port there is plenty of fresh water. Geese, ducks, snipes, and other birds, are so numerous, that the people grew tired of them. Wood, however, is wanting here, except a little that is found adrift along different parts of the shore.

Among other refreshments which are in the highest degree salutary to those who have contracted scorbutic disorders during a long voyage, here are wild celery and wood-sorrel in the greatest abundance. There are also muscles, clams, cockles, and limpets. The seals and penguins are innumerable; and the coast abounds with sea-lions, many of which are of an enormous size. This animal was found to be very formidable. The Commodore was once attacked by one of them very unexpectedly, and it was with the utmost difficulty that he could disengage himself. The people at other times had many battles with them, and it has sometimes afforded a dozen of them an hour's work to dispatch one of them. A bite of one of these creatures almost tore a very fine mastiff dog to pieces. Nor were these the only dangerous animals found here. An officer having been sent out to sound the coast upon the south shore, reported, at his return, that four fierce creatures, resembling wolves, ran up to their bellies in the water, to attack the people in his boat, and that, as they happened to have no fire-arms with them, they had immediately put the boat off into deep water. On the southern shore the officer afterwards found one of the largest sea-lions ever seen. As the boat's crew were well armed they immediately engaged him, and, during the contest, one of the other animals was seen running towards them. He was fired at before he came up, and presently killed; though the Commodore wished they had taken him alive, which, if they had been aware of his attack, might, he thought, easily have been done. When any of these creatures got sight of any of the crew, though at ever so great a distance, they ran directly at them; and no less than five of them were killed in one day. They were always called wolves by the ship's company, though, except in their size, and the shape of their tails, they more resembled foxes. They are as big as a middle-sized mastiff, and their fangs are remarkably long and sharp. There are great numbers of them upon this coast, though it is not easy to guess how they first came thither. They burrow in the ground like foxes; and pieces of seal, which they had mangled, were frequently seen; and the skins of penguins lay scattered about their holes. To get rid of these creatures the people set fire to the grass; so that the country was in a blaze, as far as the eye could reach, for several days, and they were seen running in great numbers to seek other quarters.

The Commodore, in the course of his passage, observed at the entrance of Jerom's Sound, on the north side, three or four fires, and soon afterwards perceived two or three canoes paddling after the ship. At length the canoes came up, and one of them had the resolution to come on board. The canoe was of bark, badly constructed, and the people on board, which were four men and two women, the most miserable wretches ever seen. They were all naked, except a stinking seal-skin that was thrown loosely over their shoulders. They were armed, however, with bows and arrows, which they readily gave in return for a few beads and other trifles. The arrows were made of reed, and pointed with a green stone. They were about two feet long, and the bows were three feet. The cord of the bow was the dried gut of some animal.

Soon after the ship was at anchor a-breast of Bachelor's River, several Indians came on board, and were presented with beads, ribbons, and other trifles, with which they appeared highly delighted. Commodore Byron returned this visit by going on shore among them, taking

taking only a few people with him in the boat, that the natives might not be alarmed by numbers. The visitors were received with great expressions of kindness, and, to make them welcome, the natives brought some berries, which they had gathered for that purpose, and which, with a few muscles, seemed to be the principal part, if not the whole, of their subsistence.

The Commodore having sent out an officer in the boat to look for harbours on the southern shore, was informed by the officer, on his return, that, near Cape Upright, he had fallen in with a few Indians, who had given him a dog, and that one of the women had offered him a child which was sucking at her breast. The offer was refused, as more degrading to these poor forlorn savages than any thing in their appearance or manner of life, as well as an instance of the strangest depravity of human nature, that leaves them destitute of affection for their offspring, or a most deplorable situation, that impels them to necessities by which it is surmounted.

The Commodore, in the course of his passage, met with very tempestuous weather to the eastward of Cape Monday. He says, when the season is so far advanced as it was when he attempted the passage of this strait, it is a most difficult and dangerous undertaking, as it blows a hurricane incessantly, night and day; and the rain is as violent and constant as the winds; with such fogs, as often render it impossible to discover any object at the distance of twice the ship's length.

Another officer, sent out for the same purpose as the former, having found two anchoring-places, reported, on his return, that, being on shore to the westward of Cape Monday, he had fallen in with some Indians, who had with them a canoe of a construction very different from any that had been seen in the strait before. This vessel consisted of planks sewed together; but all the others were nothing more than the barks of large trees tied together at the ends, and kept open; and short pieces of wood thrust in transversely between the two sides, like the boats which children make of a bean-shell. The people, he said, were the nearest to brutes, in their manner and appearance, of any he had ever seen. They were, like some which had been met with before; quite naked, notwithstanding the severity of the weather, except part of a seal-skin thrown over their shoulders. They eat their food, which was such as no other animal but a hog would touch, without any dressing. They had with them a large piece of whale blubber, which stunk intolerably, and one of them tore it to pieces with his teeth, and gave it about to the rest, who devoured it with the voracity of a wild beast. They did not, however, look upon what they saw in the possession of our people with indifference; for while one of them was asleep, they cut off the hinder part of his jacket with a sharp flint, which they use as a knife.

While the ship lay at anchor in a bay on the southern shore, about a league to the eastward of Cape Upright, seven or eight Indians, in a canoe, came round the western point of the bay, and having landed opposite to the ship, made a fire. Our people invited them to come on board by all the signs they could devise, but without success: the Commodore, therefore, took a boat, and went on shore to them. He introduced himself by making them presents of several trifles, with which they seemed to be much gratified, and an intimacy came on in a few minutes. Having sent on board for some bread, he divided it among them, and remarked, with equal pleasure and surprize, that if a bit of the biscuit happened to fall, not one of them offered to touch it till he gave his consent. In the mean time some of the crew were cutting a little grass for two or three sheep still remaining on board. At length the inhabitants, perceiving what they were doing, ran immediately, and tearing up all the weeds they could get, carried them to the boat, which was loaded in a short time. This token of their good will gratified the Commodore, who perceived that they were pleased with the

pleasure he expressed upon the occasion. They had, indeed, taken such a fancy to our people, that when they returned on board the boat, they all got into their canoe and followed them. When our people came near the ship, however, they stopped, and gazed at her with an apparent mixture of astonishment and terror, till at length, with some difficulty, four or five of them were prevailed on to venture on board. As soon as they entered the ship they received several presents, and appeared to be perfectly at ease in a short time.

The Commodore being very desirous to entertain them, one of the petty officers played upon the violin, and some of the crew danced. At this they were so much delighted, and so impatient to shew their gratitude, that one of them went over the ship's side into the canoe, and fetched up a seal-skin bag of red paint, and immediately smeared the fiddler's face all over with it. He was very desirous to pay the Commodore the same compliment, which, however, he thought fit to decline; but he made many very vigorous efforts to get the better of his modesty. It was with some difficulty that he defended himself from receiving the honour designed him in his own despite. After having entertained them for several hours, it was intimated to them that it would be proper for them to go on shore; but such was their attachment, that it was by no means an easy matter to get them out of the ship.

Captain Wallis represents the country about Cape Gallant as most dreary and forlorn, and the mountains on each side the straits as of immense height. About one fourth of the ascent is covered with trees of a considerable size: in the space from thence to the middle of the mountain there is nothing but withered shrubs. Above these are patches of snow, and fragments of broken rock. The summit is altogether rude and naked, towering above the clouds in vast crags that are piled upon each other, and look like the ruins of nature, devoted to perpetual sterility and desolation. Captain Wallis says, that whoever navigates this part of the strait should keep the north shore close on board, and not venture more than a mile from it till the Royal Islands are passed. The current sets easterly through the whole twenty-four hours, and the indraught should by all means be avoided. The latitude of Cape Gallant Road is 53 deg. 30 min. south; longitude 73 deg. 9 min. west.

The ship having come to an anchor in Elizabeth Bay, which lies in latitude 53 deg. 43 min. south, Captain Wallis sent the boats on shore for water; and soon after our people landed, three canoes put off from the south shore, and landed sixteen of the natives on the east point of the bay. When they came within an hundred yards of our people, they stopped, called out, and made signs of friendship. Our people did the same, shewing them some beads and other toys. At this they seemed pleased, and began to shout. Our people imitated the noise they made, and shouted in return. The Indians then advanced, still shouting and laughing very loud. When the parties met they shook hands, and our people presented the Indians with several of the toys which they had shewn them at a distance. They were covered with seal-skins, which stunk abominably; and some of them were eating the rotten flesh and blubber raw, with a keen appetite, and great seeming satisfaction. Their complexion was the same as that of those our navigators had seen before, but they were low of stature, the tallest of them not being more than five feet six inches. They appeared to be perishing with cold, and immediately kindled several fires. How they subsist in winter is not easy to guess; for the weather was at this time so severe, that there were frequent falls of snow. They were armed with bows, arrows, and javelins. The arrows and javelins were pointed with flint, which was wrought into the shape of a serpent's tongue. They discharge both with great force and dexterity, scarce ever failing to hit a mark at a great distance. To kindle a fire they strike a pebble against a piece of mundie, holding under it, to catch the

the sparks, some moss or down mixed with a whitish earth, which takes fire like timber. They then take some dry grass, and putting the lighted moss into it wave it to and fro, and in about a minute a blaze will appear.

Three of the natives came on board with the boat; but they seemed to regard nothing with any degree of curiosity except clothes and a looking-glass. The looking-glass afforded them as much diversion as it had done the Patagonians, and it seemed to surprise them more. When they first peeped into it they started back, first looking at our people, and then at each other. They then took another peep, as it were by stealth, starting back as before, and then eagerly looking behind it. When by degrees they became familiar with it they smiled, and seeing the images smile in return, they were exceedingly delighted, and burst into fits of the most violent laughter. This, however, they left, and every thing else, with perfect indifference, the little they possessed being, to all appearance, equal to their desires. They eat whatever was given them, but would drink nothing but water.

Captain Wallis went on shore with them when they left the ship, and by this time several of their wives and children were come to the watering place. He distributed some trinkets among them, with which they seemed pleased for a moment, and gave some of their arms in return. They also gave several pieces of mundic, such as is found in the tin mines of Cornwall. They gave our people to understand, that they found it on the mountains, where there are probably mines of tin, and, perhaps, of more valuable metal.

As this seemed to be the most dreary and inhospitable country in the world, the people appeared to be the lowest and most deplorable of human beings. Their perfect indifference to every thing they saw, which marked the depravity between our state and their own, though it may preserve them from the regret and anguish of unsatisfied desires, seem, notwithstanding, to imply a defect in their nature, for those who are satisfied with the gratifications of a brute can have little pretensions to the prerogatives of men.

When they embarked in their canoes they hoisted a seal skin for a sail, and steered for the southern shore, where our people saw many of their hovels, and remarked, that not one of them looked behind, so little impression had the wonders they had seen made upon their minds, and so much did they appear to be absorbed in the present, without any habitual exercise of power to reflect upon the past.

About three miles up Batchelor's River, on the west side, between Mount Misery and another mountain of stupendous height, there is a cataract, which has a very striking appearance. It is precipitated from an elevation of above 400 yards; half the way it rolls over a very steep declivity, and the other part is a perpendicular fall. The sound of this cataract is not less awful than the sight.

The country to the southward of the Strait appeared horrid and dreary beyond description. It consisted of craggy mountains much higher than the clouds, that were altogether naked from the base to the summit, there not being a single shrub, nor even a blade of grass to be seen upon them. The vallies between them were equally desolate, being entirely covered with deep snow, except in a few places where it had been washed away, or converted into ice, by the torrents which were precipitated from the crags of the mountains above, where the snow had been dissolved, and even those vallies, in the parts that were free from snow, were as destitute of verdure as the rocks between which they lay.

Having steered for Cape Upright, and anchored in the bay, while the people were employed in getting wood and water, and gathering cellery and muscles, two canoes full of Indians came along-side the ship. They had much the same appearance as the deplorable wretches seen before in Elizabeth's Bay. They had on

board some seals flesh, blubber and penguins, all of which they eat raw. Some of our people, who were fishing with a hook and line, gave one of them a fish somewhat bigger than a herring, alive, just as it came out of the water. The Indian took it hastily as a dog would take a bone, and instantly killed it by giving it a bite near the gills. He then proceeded to eat it, beginning with the head and going on to the tail, without rejecting either the bones, fins, scales, or entrails. They eat every thing that was given them indifferently whether salt or fresh, dressed or raw, but would drink nothing but water.

They shivered with cold, yet had nothing to cover them but a seal skin thrown loosely over their shoulders, which did not reach to their middle, and they were observed, when rowing, to throw even this aside, and sit stark naked. They had some javelins rudely pointed with bone, which they used to strike seals and penguins, and one of them was observed to have a piece of iron about the size of a common chissel fastened to a piece of wood, as if intended rather for a tool than a weapon.

They had all sore eyes, which was imputed to their setting over the smoak of their fires, and they smelt more offensively than a fox, which, perhaps, was partly owing to their diet, and partly to their natural filthiness.

Their canoes were about fifteen feet long, three broad, and nearly three deep. They were made of the bark of trees sewed together either with the sinews of some beast, or thongs cut out of a hide. Some kind of rush was laid into the seams, and the outside was smeared with a gum, which prevented the water from soaking into the bark. Fifteen slender branches bent into an arch were sewed transversely to the bottom and sides, and some strait pieces were placed across the top from gunwale to gunwale, and securely fastened at each end. On the whole, however, it was poorly made, nor had these people any thing among them in which there was the least appearance of ingenuity. An hatchet or two were given them, with some beads and a few other toys, with which they went away to the northward, and were no more seen by any of our people.

A party sent out in search of anchoring places spent a night upon an island adjacent to Cape Upright, called Dolphin Bay. They there saw several small coves, which were all dangerous. While they were there six canoes landed about thirty Indians, who ran to the boat, and were carrying away every thing they found in her, but our people discovered them just time enough to prevent them. As soon as they found themselves opposed, they went to their canoes, and armed themselves with long poles and javelins pointed with the bones of fish. They did not begin an attack, but stood in a threatening posture. Our people, who were twenty-two in number, acted only on the defensive, and by parting with a few trifles among them rendered them friends, and induced them to behave peaceably during their stay.

After a series of fatigue and hardships, Captain Wallis, and those under his command, quitted this dreary and inhospitable region, where they were almost in perpetual danger of shipwreck for near four months, having entered the Straits on the 17th of December 1766, and quitted them on the 11th of April 1767: a region where, in the midst of summer, the weather was cold, gloomy and tempestuous; where the prospects had more the appearance of a chaos than nature, and where, for the most part, the vallies were without herbage, and the hills without wood.

Commodore Byron observes, that it is probable those navigators who may read of the difficulties and dangers, which are by him represented to attend the passage through the Straits of Magellan will conclude, that it ought never to be attempted again; but that all the ships which might after him sail a western course from Europe into the South Seas ought to go round

Cape,

Cape Horn. He professes himself of a different opinion, and thinks that, at a proper season of the year, not only a single vessel, but a large squadron, might pass the straits in less than three weeks; and adds, that, to take the proper season, they should be at the eastern entrance some time in the month of December. As one great advantage of this passage, he adduces the facility with which fish is almost every where to be procured, with wild celery, scurvy-grass, berries, and many other vegetables in great abundance.

Our late celebrated navigator *Captain Cook* declares, that, though the doubling of Cape Horn is so much dreaded in the general opinion, it is more eligible to pass than through the Straits of Magellan. The weather was so moderate when he doubled that Cape, that the ship was not once brought under close reefed topsails after she left the Strait of Le Maire. He was just thirty-three days in coming round the land of Terra del Fuego, or Cape Horn, from the eastern entrance of the strait. He observes, that *Captain Wallis*, in the *Dolphin*, at the same season of the year, had been three months in getting through the Straits of Magellan; and is fully persuaded, that if he had come by that passage, his people would have been fatigued, and his anchors, cables, sails, and rigging, much damaged; neither of which inconveniencies he had suffered.

These respective opinions are submitted to the candid and judicious reader, who will determine upon them accordingly as the mind may be impressed by scientific or experimental knowledge.

That the reader may form a judgement of the persons and characters of the original inhabitants of South America in general, we shall present them with the following description.

All the ancient natives of the country are tawny, of a colour somewhat reddish, and more or less clear. This variety of shades in their complexion is probably owing chiefly to the different temperature of the air in the several climates they inhabit, varying from the intense heat of the torrid zone, to the nipping cold caused by the vicinity of the snows.

This diversity of climes, with that of woody countries, plains, mountains, and rivers, as also the difference of their diet, and the little correspondence the neighbouring nations have with each other, with a thousand other causes, must necessarily have produced great variety in the occupations and customs of these people. Besides, it may easily be imagined, that a nation who have been Christians, and subject to the crowns of Spain and Portugal, for an age or two, must inevitably have learned some of the manners of their conquerors; and consequently that an Indian who lives in a town or village of Peru must differ from a savage in the inner parts of the continent, and even from a new inhabitant of the missions lately settled on the banks of the Marañon. It would be needful, therefore, in order to give any one an exact idea of the Americans, to make almost as many descriptions as there are nations among them. Nevertheless, as all the European nations, though differing among themselves in tongues, manners, and customs, would still have somewhat in common to all of them in the eyes of an Asiatic, who should examine them attentively, so all the American Indians of the several countries have certain touches of resemblance in common with each other; and, some slight touches excepted, all of them, at the bottom, seem to be of one common temper, whereof insensibility is the basis, which, whether it ought to be honoured with the name of apathy, or branded with that of stupidity, we leave others to decide.

This undoubtedly proceeds from the small number of their ideas, which extend no farther than their necessities. Gluttons even to voracity, when they have wherewith to satisfy themselves; yet moderate when they needs must, even to shifting without any thing, or seeming to desire aught. Pusillanimous and cowardly to the last degree, if drunkenness does not transport them, enemies to labour, unmoved by any in-

centive to glory, honour or gratitude; wholly intent upon the object that is before them, and always determined thereby, without any regard to futurity. Incapable of foresight and reflection; giving themselves up, when not under restraint, to a childish joy, which they express by skipping about, and immoderate fits of laughter, without either meaning or design: thus they pass their lives without thought; and grow old without having taken leave of infancy, all the failings whereof they retain.

Having thus given an ample Geographical account and description not only of the whole continent of America, but likewise the adjoining islands, with every New Discovery made by the most modern, accurate and authentic navigators and travellers, and preserved every incident and circumstance we could collect for the entertainment of the Reader, we shall conclude our account of this part of the globe, with giving a concise detail of the particular circumstances that unfortunately occasioned the separation of a great part of it from the mother-country.

Concise History of the War between GREAT BRITAIN and AMERICA; with its subsequent consequences.

THE circumstance that gave rise to the dissensions which took place between Great Britain and her American colonies (and which was productive of a tragic progress and unfortunate issue) was that unpopular act of the British legislature, called the Stamp Act.

The first commotions were in the province of Massachusetts Bay, and more particularly at Boston, where the commissioners for enforcing the revenue acts, and collecting the monies arising therefrom, were badly received, and narrowly escaped with their lives. All persons, directly or indirectly, belonging to government, were looked upon with a suspicious eye; the cool and dispassionate were silent, and the commonalty declared they would not be taxed by the British parliament without their own consent; that was to say, without actual representation. Some of the commissioners were compelled, upon oath, to renounce at that time and for ever all concern with these taxes. The tax-gatherers were tarred and feathered: the ships, which carried over the stamps were threatened with conflagration, unless they delivered up the exceptionable parts of their cargoes to be committed to the flames; and, in fine, anarchy succeeded amity, and mutual enmity usurped the place of reciprocal concord.

At length, the inhabitants of Boston, and some other parts of New England, came to a determination not to make use of any articles of British manufacture; and about the beginning of February 1768 the house of representatives gave their sanction and authority to this resolution.

The most acrimonious disputes now took place between many of the inhabitants of New England in general; most of the people of Boston in particular on the one part, and governor Barnard with the loyalists on the other. Aggravating things were said, ill-natured actions done, and libels were published by both parties. Thus a war of sentiments commenced before real hostilities; the obsolete terms of Whig and Tory were revived, and the souls of each faction were in arms, previous to any manual exertions of the animosity that subsisted between them.

In the middle of June, 1768, the captain of a shallop, wanting to run some wine, and ill using the tide-waiter, the vessel was seized, and, for better security, put along-side the Romney man of war. This occasioned a riot, when the comptroller, and collector of the customs, took refuge on board the said man of war.

Government, however, in order to conciliate matters as much as possible, repealed the stamp act; but still the Americans were dissatisfied; for they insisted that

that, though the act itself was repealed, yet the spirit of it remained, while a revenue was demanded from the colonies. Frequent meetings were continued, riots were frequent, and interested persons fomented the disputes.

In June, 1768, the governor directed the house of representatives at Boston, to rescind a resolution concerning a circular letter to some of the other governments, but they refusing, he dissolved the assembly on the 3d of August following.

At length it was determined to coerce the Americans, and a body of troops arrived there accordingly, from Halifax, September 30, 1768, escorted by some ships of war.

The riotous proceedings of the Bostonians increasing, more troops were ordered to Boston, and a variety of altercations took place, not only between the governor and the people, but between them and General Gage.

In the beginning of the year 1769, many persons in the colony of New York thought proper to adopt the sentiments of the Bostonians, and to engage in the political squabbles which were daily heightening in New England. Other colonies soon after acceded to the combination, and, in particular, to the resolutions for the non-importation of the British manufactures and East-India goods: and thus the fire of dissention increased with great rapidity, and the flame of discord blazed through the greatest part of North America.

The Bostonians now summed up a variety of grievances, among which complaints were these: "That the civil power was disregarded, and centinels placed in various parts of the town: That the negroes had been united to take away the lives and properties of their masters, and to repair to the army for protection: That some of the soldiers had attacked the magistrates of the town: That many soldiers had been repeatedly rescued from the peace-officers: That many persons had been wounded by the military: And that on the 5th of March, 1770, eleven persons were either killed, or dangerously wounded."

These charges were either denied or palliated by the other party, by the plea of the military being compelled to act as they did, and to defend themselves; and at the same time accusations, equally atrocious, were brought against the people of New England. Some persons were tried for the murders, but none executed.

Sir Francis Barnard having returned to England, the animosities and disputes still continued between the people and Lieutenant-governor Hutchinson, who remained in his room. But as political squabbles are not worthy of recording in a performance of this kind, and acrimonious accusations, proceeding from prejudice, and propagated by partiality, ought to be consigned to oblivion, and not introduced into a work of science, we shall wave trivial altercations, and only register the more important points in these unhappy differences, by which the mind may be informed, and the memory will not be oppressed.

About the middle of December, in the year 1773, some ships, laden with tea, being at Boston, (as a duty was to be paid,) the people would not suffer it to be landed. The ships being refused a clearance by the governor, unless the cargoes were landed, and properly disposed of, a mob, dressed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ships which contained the tea, and were commanded by the Captains Hall, Bruce, and Coffin, and emptied their cargoes, consisting of 342 chests of tea, into the water. This, and other outrages, occasioned the Boston-Port Bill, passed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boston was proscribed and blocked up.

The people of New England now began to form themselves into companies, practise the military arts, enter into solemn leagues and covenants, &c. Several of the other colonies followed their example, provincial assemblies were held, and a general congress established, to which deputies from the several provinces were invited.

Exclusive of bickerings and animosities between the Royalists and Provincials, and the martial parade of the latter, the next martial transaction was the seizure of Fort William and Mary, near Portsmouth, in New Hampshire, by the Provincial militia, in which they found 106 barrels of gunpowder, several cannon, shot, small arms, &c.

General Gage being informed that a great quantity of military stores were in the possession of the Provincial troops, at the town of Concord, sent a detachment of troops, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, and Major Pitcairn, supported by another body, commanded by Lord Percy, in order to seize or destroy them. This service was effectually performed, after some skirmishes; but on April 19, 1775, the troops were attacked at Lexington, on their return towards Boston. Several were killed and wounded on both sides, the Provincials firing from behind stone walls, hedges, bushes, &c.

The Provincials now invested the town of Boston; and the people of New York, hearing of the action at Lexington, and the affair of Concord, rose in a tumultuous manner, entered the town-house, seized a great many stands of arms, appropriated to their own use the cargoes of two ships laden with military stores for General Gage, and then marched to the assistance of the Bostonians.

The Provincials not only continued to block up the town of Boston, but began to raise batteries on the heights of the peninsula of Charles Town, in order to cannonade his Majesty's troops. This brought on the action of Bunker's Hill; for, on the 17th of June, 1775, a considerable body of troops, under the command of Major-General Howe, and Brigadier-General Pigot, were sent to dislodge the Provincials. This body of forces, with a proportionable quantity of artillery, made good their landing near Bunker's Hill, under the protection of the ships of war, armed vessels, floating batteries, &c. and being soon after reinforced by another detachment, a desperate action commenced, in which the British forces were victorious, the Provincial lines being forced, and themselves compelled to retreat, leaving behind them several pieces of cannon, and other military stores. The loss of the Provincials, in killed and wounded, was very great. Of the British troops, according to the return of General Gage, 226 were killed, and 828 were wounded, some of the latter dying soon after; and more than a proportionable number of officers being included in both lists.

At New York, on the night of the 23d of August, 1775, the cannon were seized upon, by order of the congress, though the Asia man of war, which lay in the harbour, tried to prevent it, by cannonading the town.

At the same time General Carleton was indefatigable in putting the province of Canada into a proper state of defence. And the Earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, having thought proper to take refuge on board a ship of war, harassed the coast, and made frequent descents upon the last mentioned province, laying waste the country, carrying off, or spiking up, a great number of cannon; destroying vast quantities of military stores belonging to the Provincials, &c. &c. But, on the other side, Fort St. John surrendered to the Provincial forces, on the 3d of November, 1775, and the garrison became prisoners.

On the 18th of November, 1775, the Regulars and Provincials had a hot engagement near Savannah, in Georgia, in which the latter were defeated: And on the 31st of December, in the same year, the Provincial General Montgomery, who had for some time laid siege to the city of Quebec, attempted to take it by storm. In this attempt, however, he was defeated and slain, with several of his officers, and about 60 private men, and 300 were taken prisoners. On January the 4th, 1776, some ships of war destroyed the town of Norfolk, in Virginia.

General Gage having been recalled, General Howe, who succeeded in the command, thought proper to evacuate the town of Boston, which he effected on the 17th of March, 1776, and made good his landing, and the capture of New York. In June, 1776, a battle was fought in Canada, between the Regulars, under General Carleton, and the Provincials, at a place called Three Rivers, when the latter were defeated, many of them being killed and wounded, and about 200 taken prisoners. In June, 1776, an attempt was made on Charles Town, South Carolina, by Sir Peter Parker, at the head of a fleet of ships of war, and General Clinton, with a body of land forces; but it failed of success. On the 4th of June following, the congress declared the colonies independent.

After the King's troops were in possession of New York, many skirmishes happened between them and the Provincials, but nothing decisive till October, 1776, when the latter were defeated, in an action, which, from the place where it was fought, was termed the battle of the White Plains.

In the month of November, 1776, Fort Washington, and Fort Lee, were taken by the British forces, together with a great variety of military stores, and many prisoners. In December Rhode Island was taken by General Clinton. About the same time Lord Cornwallis took possession of East Jersey; and General Lee was taken prisoner by a patrol, consisting of 30 British dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel (afterwards Lord) Harcourt.

Several skirmishes happened in the beginning of the year 1777, in the Jerseys, with various success. On the 23d and 24th of March, a great quantity of provisions, stores, &c. with barracks, storehouses, &c. belonging to the Provincials, were destroyed by the King's troops at Peek's Hill, upon the North River. The cruizers belonging to Lord Howe and Commodore Hotham's fleet, continued to take many prizes. In Connecticut, on the 27th of April, 1777, the King's troops destroyed a great quantity of stores at Danbury.

General Burgoyne, with the northern army, proceeded to Ticonderago, and Fort Independence, which he took possession of July 6, 1777, and found in them great quantities of stores and provisions, besides what he destroyed of both at Skenesborough. Soon after he took possession of Fort Edward, which the Provincials abandoned, and then proceeded to Saratoga, where they were strongly posted.

On the 11th of September, 1777, the troops under the command of General Howe, had an engagement with the Provincials on the Heights of Brandywine, in which many were killed and wounded on both sides, and 400 Provincials were taken prisoners: but though the latter were defeated, and the action at first seemed of an indecisive nature, yet it occasioned Philadelphia to fall into the hands of the British troops. While General Howe was thus employed, an unsuccessful attack was made by the Provincials on Staten Island; for they were repulsed. Much about the same time General Clinton stormed and took Fort Clinton and Fort Montgomery.

On the 16th of October, 1777, the Provincials, under the command of General Gates, having surrounded General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, the latter thought proper to enter into articles of capitulation, by which himself and his troops, after laying down their arms, were to have a free passage to Great Britain.

In the latter end of the year 1777 several forts were taken by the troops and shipping; and many skirmishes happened on the banks of the Delaware, in order to keep up the communication with the army at Philadelphia. The Provincials likewise evacuated their intrenchments at Red Bank.

The campaign of 1778 began by many ravages made by the British troops in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and they possessed themselves of great quantities of military stores, provisions, vessels, &c.

On the 18th of June General Clinton (Sir William Howe having previously departed for England, and left to him the grand command of the British forces,) pursuant to the instructions received from government, evacuated Philadelphia. He was attacked on his march by the Provincials; whose principal object appeared to be the gaining possession of the British baggage: but in this, however, they were disappointed; and every where repulsed.

About this time the Earl of Carlisle, Mr. Eden, and Governor Johnstone, were sent as Commissioners from Great Britain, to treat of a pacification with America, but they did not meet with the success that every true lover of both countries wished.

On the 10th of December Commodore Hotham arrived at Barbadoes with about 4000 troops from England, where he was joined by a small squadron under the command of Admiral Barrington. They failed together to St. Lucia, where they landed their troops; but before they could make themselves masters of the island, Count D'Estaing appeared, and landed 5000 men. He was, however, repulsed with great slaughter, and the men obliged to make a precipitate retreat to their ships; against which Admiral Barrington's small force had fully defended the harbours.

In the beginning of the year 1779 two bodies of forces, one under the command of Colonel Campbell, and the other from St. Augustine, in Florida, were ordered for the reduction of Georgia, in which they succeeded after a few actions and desperate resistance from their opponents.

In the month of December Count D'Estaing, having conquered the Grenades and St. Vincent's, laid close siege to Charles Town, then in the hands of Sir Henry Clinton, but was repulsed with great slaughter, and himself severely wounded in the action.

In the month of April, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton quitted Charles Town, and went to New York, leaving the care of the former place to the Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon. The Americans, during his absence, made several attempts on the place, but were always repulsed; owing to the vigilance of the British commander.

During Admiral Byron's stay in the West-Indies, he, in company with Admiral Barrington, engaged the French off St. Vincent's, with some loss, both parties claiming the victory. About the same time Count D'Estaing made an unsuccessful expedition to the Savannah, and afterwards returned to France.

Some time after this Admiral Rodney (who had been with succours to the relief of Gibraltar, then closely besieged by the Spaniards) arrived in the West-Indies, and engaged the French fleet under the command of M. Guichen, but it terminated without any material victory on either side.

About this time hostilities were commenced between Great Britain and the United States of Holland, owing to a bag of papers being found belonging to Mr. Laurens, formerly president of the continental congress, who was taken by his Majesty's frigate the *Vestal*, as he was passing over to Holland. Mr. Laurens, after his examination, was committed close prisoner to the Tower.

During these transactions a mutinous spirit prevailed among the continental forces in America. Brigadier Arnold had for some time held a correspondence with the English General, which was principally carried on by means of Major André, adjutant-general to the British army. This young officer gave Arnold a meeting at a place appointed, the latter of whom advised him to disguise himself, and, under the feigned name of John Anderson, to make his way for New York. This advice he readily followed; but at a place called Ferry Town was seized by three militia men, and conducted to General Washington. He was immediately tried by a court-martial as a spy, and being found guilty, and sentenced to death, was executed accordingly.

The

The campaign of the year 1781 was opened by a desperate battle between the British forces, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, and the Provincials, under the command of General Sumpter. The British forces proved victorious; all the artillery and ammunition waggons belonging to the enemy being taken, and between eight and nine hundred slain, besides great numbers taken prisoners.

On the 17th of February Lieutenant-Colonel Tarleton, being detached with a body of forces, engaged a strong party of the enemy near Broad River, under the command of General Morgan. The battle continued obstinate on both sides for some time, till at length Tarleton was obliged to retreat, leaving his killed and wounded behind him.

While these things were taking place on the continent, an attack was made on the Island of St. Eustatius, by Sir George Brydges Rodney and General Vaughan, and the place was surrendered by the enemy without the least resistance. The quantity of merchandize found on the island was so great that the warehouses could not contain it. The Islands of St. Martha and Saba likewise surrendered. This blow was severely felt by the Dutch. The ships in the harbour were seized, and a fleet of 30 sail of merchantmen fell into the hands of the English; but, on their way home, 22 of them were re-taken by the French.

About this time the Spaniards laid siege to Pensacola, which they took after an obstinate resistance. The garrison obtained honourable terms, and were conveyed to New York.

During these transactions the war was carried on with great vigour on the continent. The British troops repeatedly baffled the efforts of the Provincials, and in most encounters came off victorious. Lord Cornwallis engaged a considerable body of troops, under the command of General Greene, at the town of Guildford, and, after an obstinate resistance, which lasted about half an hour, obtained a complete victory, great numbers of the Provincials being killed, and the rest put to flight. General Greene, however, after being thus defeated, marched to Wilmington, where getting some supplies, and recruiting his scattered forces, he set out for Camden, which he expected to have found ill defended; but Lord Rawdon, who was left there, did not wait for the attack of the enemy; on the contrary, he, with about 800 men, marched out to meet General Greene, whom he encountered and defeated, obliging the enemy to save themselves by a very precipitate flight.

On the 20th of May Earl Cornwallis arrived at Petersburg in Virginia, where he joined a body of British troops that had been under the command of Major-general Phillips, but the command of which, in consequence of the death of that officer, had devolved upon Brigadier-general Arnold. Before this junction he had encountered considerable inconveniences from the difficulty of procuring provisions and forage.

On the 26th of June, about six miles from Williamsburgh, Lieutenant colonel Simcoe, and 350 of the Queen's Rangers, were attacked by a much superior body of the Americans, but whom they repulsed with great gallantry, and with equal success, making four officers and twenty private men prisoners. The loss of the Americans in this action amounted to 120, besides great numbers taken prisoners.

On the 6th of July an action happened near a place called the Green Springs in Virginia, between a reconnoitring party of the Americans under General Wayne, amounting to about 800, and a large part of the British army under Lord Cornwallis, in which the Americans had 127 killed and wounded, and the loss of the royal troops was considerably greater. It was an action in which no small degree of military skill and courage were exhibited by the Americans.

In South Carolina an action happened on the 9th of September near the Eataw Springs, between a large body of British troops, under the command of Lieute-

nant-colonel Stewart, and a much superior body of Americans, amounting to 4000, under the command of General Greene. It was an obstinate battle, and lasted near two hours; but the Americans were defeated, and two of their six pounders fell into the hands of the English. The loss, however, of the royal troops was very considerable, amounting to more than 400 killed and wounded, and upwards of 200 missing.

In the course of the same month General Arnold was sent on an expedition against New London in Connecticut, where he destroyed a great part of the shipping; and an immense quantity of naval stores; European manufactures, and East and West India commodities. The town itself was also burnt, which was unavoidable on account of the explosions of great quantities of gunpowder, which happened to be in the storehouses that were set on fire. A fort, of which it was thought necessary to gain possession in this expedition, was not taken without considerable loss. This was fort Griswold, which was defended by the Americans with great gallantry, and the assault was made by the English with equal bravery. The British troops entered the works with fixed bayonets, and were opposed with great vigour by the garrison with long spears. After a most obstinate defence of near forty minutes the assailants gained possession of the fort, in which 85 Americans were found dead, and 60 wounded, most of them mortally. Of the British troops Major Montgomery was killed by a spear in entering the American works; and 192 men were also killed and wounded in this expedition.

During these transactions the most effectual measures were adopted by General Washington for surrounding the British army under Earl Cornwallis. A large body of French troops under the command of Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau, with a very considerable train of artillery assisted in the enterprize. The Americans amounted to near 8000 continentals, and 5000 militia, and General Washington was invested with the chief command of these combined forces.

In the mean time various skirmishes took place in different parts of the American continent, and were attended with various success; but in general the English gained the superiority.

On the 18th of October, 1781, a most desperate battle took place between the conjunctive forces under the Provincial General Washington and M. Rochambeau, the French commander, and the British troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis. The latter was situated in a very disadvantageous spot, being hemmed in on one side by the French fleet in the Chesapeake River, and on the other by the continental land forces. The attack was made with great resolution by the enemy, and, for some time, as strongly resisted by the brave Cornwallis, who cut to pieces the greater part of three regiments of the French forces; but being at length overpowered with numbers, he was obliged to surrender, and enter into the like articles of capitulation as took place with General Burgoyne at Saratoga. Sir Henry Clinton had left New York with a considerable body of forces, in order to give assistance to the brave Cornwallis; but, by a manœuvre of General Washington (who, a short time before, appeared to have some designs against New York) Sir Henry was too late, and the whole army of Lord Cornwallis, which amounted to 7000 men, fell into the hands of the provincials. The Earl made a defence suitable to the character he had acquired for courage and military skill; but he was compelled to submit to superior numbers. A considerable number of cannon, and a large quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of the Americans on this occasion.

The surrender of Earl Cornwallis was the last military transaction of moment on the continent of North America, and led to the conclusion of a civil war, which had been unhappily attended with the loss of a vast profusion of blood and treasure on both sides.

No other event of that war contributed so effectually to produce a general conviction in the minds of men of the impracticability of the conquest of the American colonies, especially as they had formed such powerful alliances.

When intelligence of the defeat of Earl Cornwallis arrived in England, that conviction appeared to be irresistible; for men of all ranks and parties now decried against the continuance of a war unproductive of the effects originally designed, and absolutely ruinous to the interests of both countries.

A member of the British House of Commons, in December 1781, made two motions declaratory of the sense of the house against the further prosecution of the American war.

On the 22d of February 1782 a motion was made of the same tendency by a military officer, and negatived by only one voice. In a short time after the same motion being carried, instructions were dispatched in consequence of the resolution of the house to Sir Guy Carleton (who succeeded Sir Henry Clinton in the command of the army and the government of New York) to use his utmost endeavours for producing an accommodation with the Americans.

Sir Guy Carleton having received these advices, dispatched, in the month of May, 1782, a letter to General Washington, informing him of the proceedings of parliament, of the disposition prevalent both in that body and the British government, and of his own consequent instructions, accompanied with such written or printed documents as were necessary to illustrate and authenticate what he had stated.

As by a resolution of the British House of Commons powers had been granted to the crown for negotiating and concluding a general or particular peace or truce with the whole, or any part, of the Americans, the several states reprobated the idea of opening separate negotiations with particular governments, or bodies of men, or even of attempting to open a treaty with Congress without the concurrence of its allies, and came to a general determination to exert their utmost power conjunctively to carry on the war with vigour until peace should be obtained in a manner consistent with their national union.

A resolution was also passed by Congress, that the United States could not, with propriety, hold any conference, or treaty, with any commissioners on the part of Great Britain, unless they should, as a preliminary thereunto, either withdraw their fleets and armies, or else, in positive and express terms, acknowledge the independence of the said States.

In the month of October Congress issued a public declaration, in which, after reciting, that France and they were equally bound by the conditions of their alliance, that neither should conclude either peace or truce with Great Britain without the consent of the other, and observing that their ministers in Europe were vested with full power and authority in their behalf, and in consort with their allies, to negotiate and conclude a general peace, they proceeded to declare, in the strongest terms, their fixed and unalterable determination inviolably to adhere to the treaty of alliance with his most Christian Majesty, and to conclude neither a separate peace or truce with Great Britain; and that they would not enter into the discussion of any overtures for pacification, but in confidence and in consort with his most Christian Majesty.

While the Americans were thus avowing their inflexible attachment to their allies, and endeavouring,

as it were, to shut out every overture towards accommodation, the belligerent powers in Europe seemed disposed to pacific measures.

As the attainment of the independence of America was avowedly the grand object of the French in the war, its being granted seemed at once to remove the very ground of contention. With respect to the adjustment of matters with the British court, that did not seem to be very difficult, as, though the acquisition of France in the West Indies were considerable, her losses in the East left the means of a reasonable equivalent in the hands of the English.

As to Spain, which seems to have entered into the war rather as an auxiliary, and in consequence of the family compact, than as acting upon national principles, neither the embarrassed state of her finances, the repeated failure of her designs upon Jamaica, her very signal defeat at Gibraltar, or other circumstances of her then condition, seemed to afford any solid ground upon which she could reasonably establish further claims.

The United States of Holland, fallen and degraded to the lowest degree, were reduced to the necessity of depending entirely upon the favours and protection of France, as well in the conclusion of a peace as she had through the progress of the war.

With respect to the general circumstances of the contending parties, the most successful members of the alliance, great and formidable as it was, scarcely stood much less in need of peace than Great Britain, notwithstanding all her losses, and exposed as she had so long been as a common mark to withstand singly all their attacks in every quarter.

Under these general circumstances of the contending powers, the independence of America being allowed, there did not seem to be any insurmountable obstacle in the way to the restoration of the public tranquillity.

This plan was adopted by the new administration in England upon their coming into power: commissioners and plenipotentiaries were appointed by the respective powers, and on the 30th of November 1782 provisional articles were signed by the commissioners from his Britannic Majesty, and the commissioners on the part of the United States of America, which were to be inserted in, and to constitute, a future treaty of peace to be finally concluded between the parties, when that between Great Britain and France took place.

The history of this civil war is handed down at large to posterity by able writers, in order to serve as the most forcible lessons of instruction to the sovereigns and subjects of every state. In the course of such a war the passions may be supposed to be inflamed to a high degree of rancour; but this will ever be the case in all sublunary events; and the cruelties perpetrated on either side by heated or unprincipled individuals no intelligent person will impute to the national character at large. The virtues that shine in human nature, and render life desirable and happy, are the growth of no particular country; for where the light of knowledge is diffused, their endearing influence will be felt with irresistible force; and the posterity of Great Britain and America, while they read with concern the phrenzy of their fathers, may be nobly vying with each other in virtuous and philosophical emulation, and cultivating such friendly connections as may render both a great and happy people.



A
NEW & ACCURATE
MAP
of
EUROPE,
*Drawn from the best
AUTHORITIES,
By Tho^s. Bowen.*



A NEW, ROYAL, AUTHENTIC,
And COMPLETE SYSTEM of
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.



B O O K V.
E U R O P E.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS part of the globe was formerly called by the Romans, as it is at present by the Spaniards and Italians, by the name of Europa, but from whence that appellation originated has not been determined. In the English and French it is stiled Europe; by the Turks Alfrank, or Rumelia; by the Georgians of Asia Iankoba; and by the Asiatics in general Frankistan.

Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Sea, on the east by Asia, on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean.

This grand division of the earth is situated between 35 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 9 deg. 35 min. west, and 72 deg. 25 min. east longitude. In utmost extent, in length, is about 3600 miles, and in breadth about 2200.

Europe, though inferior, in point of magnitude, to Asia, Africa, and America, is far superior to them all in several important respects. As to the advantages of situation, it is to be observed, that no part of it is exposed to the scorching heat of the torrid, and but a small part of it to the chilling cold of the frigid zone.

To these advantages may be added many seas, navigable rivers, mountains, &c. admirably adapted to the purposes of extensive commerce between different nations; and happily situated as barriers against the efforts either of invasion or despotism.

The principal rivers of Europe are the Danube and Rhine in Germany, the Volga and Divina in the Russian empire, the Loire and Seine in France, the Thames and Severn in England, &c. &c.

The chief lakes are Constance in Germany, Geneva in Switzerland, Garda in Italy, Wener in Sweden, Ladoga and Onega in Russia, Loch Lomond in Scotland, and Neagh in Ireland.

The principal mountains are the Pyrenean Mountains between France and Spain, the Alps between France and Italy, the Dofrin hills in Sweden, the Graubünden hills in Hungary, some hills in the Highlands of Scotland, and several, particularly Snowden, in Wales.

No. 53.

Europe, through superiority of cultivation, produces a greater abundance of corn, wines, fruit, cattle, and, indeed, most of the luxuries, as well as necessaries, of life, than the other quarters of the globe. As to the valuable articles of gold, silver, jewels, spices, &c. though not its natural productions, they are supplied by means of navigation and commerce.

Fearless the merchant now pursues his gain,
And roams securely o'er the boundless main:
Now o'er his head the polar bear he spies,
And freezing spangles of the Lapland skies;
Now swells his canvas to the sultry line,
With glittering spoils, where Indian grottos shine,
Where fumes of incense glad the southern seas,
And wafted citrons scent the balmy breeze;
And here the ore whose melted mass shall yield,
On faithful coins, each memorable field,
Which, mix'd with medals of immortal Rome,
May clear disputes, and teach the times to come.

Europe is fuller of cities, towns, and villages, and the buildings, in general, more strong, elegant, and commodious, than those of the other parts. The inhabitants are better featured, and better made, than either the inhabitants of Asia or Africa, and are all whites; tho' their complexions have different degrees of delicacy, according to their situations, and other local circumstances.

With respect to mental endowments, and the exertion of the intellectual faculties, the inhabitants of Europe must be admitted to claim pre-eminence. Pertinent to this remark may be cited some observations of a very learned and ingenious writer, in words to the following effect. Having premised that in Greece the human mind seemed first to have duly conceived and exerted its powers in the invention and improvement of such arts as were conducive either to pleasure or utility, this writer goes on to observe, that what Greece is in this

point of view with regard to Europe, Europe itself is with regard to the other divisions of the earth; and concludes with this reflection: "That as ancient Greece was distinguished above all the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political constitution, so has Europe, in general, been remarkable for smaller deviations at least from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world."

To this pre-eminence in mental acquisitions must be attributed the invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences, and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, which distinguish the 15th and 16th centuries, and embellish the history of Europe. In these ages the powers of Europe were formed into one grand political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions and foreign wars. The established political principles and maxims still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power, long introduced, and rendered general, have still some degree of influence in the councils of the nations of Europe.

From these concurring circumstances it is evident that the concurrence of so many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. It is equally evident that, in contending for it, they must weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending their just possessions. The partial conquests they make are illusive; for, instead of promoting, they rather oppose their designs. The more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been so often executed by slow reiterated efforts, as in the course of a few years, and sometimes by a single expedition.

A prince may form a deliberate plan for destroying the rights of his subjects; he may proceed by slow degrees in the execution of it; and if he dies before the accomplishment, his successor may pursue the same steps, and avail himself of what was done before him: But external conquests cannot be concealed. They, in general, excite alarms, and occasion confederacies, by which the conquering prince is reduced to the last extremities. This maxim, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the best established in the whole system of politics, and confirmed by a variety of examples, both ancient and modern.

To these remarks may be justly added, as an instance of the pre-eminence of Europe, the invention and improvement of the art of navigation in particular, of all others the most beneficial to mankind: and amongst these we may here be permitted to enroll the name of our renowned countryman *Captain Cook*.

To this improvement of the mind, and cultivation of the liberal arts, it is owing that, though several of the most extensive parts of Europe are under monarchical forms of government, the administration of those forms are by no means so arbitrary, nor are their sovereigns so despotic, as those of Asia and Africa. Various, indeed, are the forms of government, exclusive of that of monarchy, which prevail in Europe. Here are aristocracies, or governments of the nobles; democracies, or governments of the people; and, lastly, there is the mixed form of government, composed of three parts, participating of the benefits, and exempted from the inconveniencies, of the other three classes or forms. This form is the peculiar boast and glory of Great Britain.

The languages of Europe are derived from six radical ones, viz.

1. Latin, of which the Italian, French, and Spanish, are dialects.

2. Teutonic, from whence proceed the German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, and English-tongues.

3. Slavonian, which reigns in different dialects in Poland, Muscovy, Bohemia, and a great part of Turkey in Europe.

4. The Celtic, of which there are remaining dialects in Wales, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, Brittany in France, and Lapland.

5. Greek, of which several dialects are spoken in the Morea, and the islands of the Levant.

6. Gothic, some remains of which are preserved in the islands of the Baltic, and the southern parts of Sweden.

To these we may add the languages spoken in Turkey and Little Tartary as European languages.

The Christian religion prevails throughout every part of Europe, except that in the possession of the Turks: but as men conceive differently concerning points of speculation, according to their different passions and education, that religion is divided into a number of sects. Hence Italy, Spain, France, part of Germany and the Netherlands, with part of Poland, still follow the doctrine of the church of Rome; whereas England, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, part of Switzerland, &c. have embraced the reformation, and profess the Protestant religion: And in Muscovy, some parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia, Padolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the Eastern or Greek church is followed.

Europe may claim, upon the whole, pre-eminence over the rest of the world, by having the doctrines of Christianity professed throughout the greatest part of it, and being enlightened by a religion at once pure, majestic, cheerful, and securing the eternal felicity of its professors.

Sudden religion on the wond'ring blaze,
From heav'n's broad concave burst the rapid blaze;
At once descending from the realms on high,
An angel shape arrests the dazzled eye:
Loose o'er her limbs the floating garments roll'd,
Her sparkling pinions flam'd with beamy gold;
Her eyes like light'ning glanc'd a piercing ray,
And all th' illumin'd æther glean'd with day!
Near as she came, superior, tho' resign'd,
Her form majestic aw'd the dubious mind;
With heighten'd grace her bloomy features glow'd;
Free on her robe the mazy ringlets flow'd;
Her balmy breath ambrosial scents perfume,
And o'er her cheek was pour'd celestial bloom.
Pale sorrow brighten'd as religion came,
And slow-pac'd time stood trembling at the name;
Rage, dragg'd in triumph, swell'd her solemn train,
And death behind her grin'd and clank'd his chain.

To these introductory remarks concerning Europe considered in general, we subjoin the following Table, exhibiting, in one point of view, its several parts, continental and insular, with their length, breadth, chief cities, distances and bearings from London, religions, &c. &c. And, we presume, such a general view will afford our readers a pleasing anticipation of our subsequent particular description, to render which as entertaining and instructive as possible, no pains shall be wanting, either in the selection or arrangement of the most modern and best authenticated materials.

A GENERAL INSPECTION TABLE FOR EUROPE.

C O N T I N E N T S.

Nations.	Length Breadth.		Chief Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.		Religions.
Groenland	-	-	-	-	-	-
Greenland	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lapland	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540	N.	} Lutherans
Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500	N. E.	
Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750	N. E.	} Greek Church
Russia	1500	1100	Petersburgh	1140	N. E.	
Poland	700	680	Warsaw	760	E.	} Papists, Luth. and Calv.
King of Prussia's Dominions	Uncertain, from the continual fluctuation in the affairs of the different monarchs.		Berlin	540	E.	
Germany			Vienna	600	E.	} Papists, Luth. and Calv.
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600	E.	
Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	180	E.	} Calvinists
Flanders	200	200	Brussels	180	S. E.	
France	600	500	Paris	200	S. E.	} Papists
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800	S.	
Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850	S. W.	} Calvinists and Papists
Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420	S. E.	
Papedom, or Ecclesiastical State	240	120	Rome	820	S. E.	}
Naples	280	120	Naples	870	S. E.	
Piedmont	140	98	Turin	-	-	} Papists
Montferrat	40	22	Casal	-	-	
Milan	155	70	Milan	-	-	}
Parma	48	37	Parma	-	-	
Modena	65	39	Modena	-	-	} Papists
Mantua	47	27	Mantua	-	-	
Venice	175	95	Venice	-	-	}
Genoa	160	25	Genoa	-	-	
Tuscany	115	94	Florence	-	-	}
Hungary	300	200	Buda	780	S. E.	
Danubian Provinces	600	420	Constantinople	1320	S. E.	} Mahometans and
Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500	E.	
Greece	400	240	Athens	1360	S. E.	} Greek Church.

I S L A N D S.

Names.	Where situated.	Chief Cities or Towns.	To whom Subject.
Iceland	Northern Ocean	Skalholt	Denmark
Zealand			
Funen			
Alsen			
Falster			
Langland	Baltic Sea		Denmark
Laland			
Femeren			
Mona			
Bornholm			
Gothland			Sweden
Oeland			
Aland			
Rugen			
Ofel			
Dagho			Russia
Ufedom			
Wollin			
Great Britain			
Ireland			
Anglesey	Atlantic Ocean		Prussia
Wight			
Scilly			
Man			
The Hebrides or Western Isles			
Orcades	English Channel		Great Britain
Sherland			
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark			
Ivica			
Majorca			
Minorca	Mediterranean Sea		Spain
Corfica			
Sardinia			
Sicily			
Lusina, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia			
European Islands of the Archipelago and Levant	Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice.		France
			King of Sardinia
			King of the Two Sicilies
			Venice
			Turkey

In Europe are	Namely, of	Germany
		Russia
		Turky
		The Popedom
		Great Britain
		France
		Spain
		Portugal
		Poland
		Prussia
		Denmark
		Sweden
		Sardinia
		Hungary
		The Two Sicilies
In Europe are	Namely, of	Austria
		Tuscany
		Venice
		United Provinces
		Swiss Cantons
		Genoa
		Geneva
		Lucca
		San Marino
		Ragusa
		European Tartary

Exclusive of the before mentioned are the electorates of Germany, and about 300 smaller sovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. the sovereigns of which are either spiritual, as archbishops, &c. or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquisses, counts, margraves, hospodars, &c.

Europe, exclusive of the circumscribing oceans and seas, contains

1 Ocean	Viz: The	German Ocean	Sea	Between	Germany and England
5 Seas	Viz: The	Mediterranean	Sea	Between	Europe and Africa
2 Channels	Viz: The	English	Channel	Between	England and France
1 Bay	Viz: The	Bay of Biscay	Channel	Between	France and Spain
3 Gulphs	Viz: The	Bothnian	Gulph	Between	Norway and Finland

CHAP. I.

GREENLAND.

IN our description of this country we shall consider it as comprising two parts, viz, Greenland, West Greenland, or Old Greenland; and East Greenland, New Greenland, or Spitzbergen.

SECTION I.

GROENLAND.

Discovery, &c.

A NORWEGIAN, named Torwald, and his son Erick, surnamed Raude, or the Red-haired, having committed a murder in his country, fled over to Iceland, where Torwald died. His son Erick, having afterwards committed another murder in Iceland, to escape the severity of the law, resolved to seek for shelter in a country which one Gunderbairne had told him he had seen to the west of Iceland. Erick landed, by his direction, in a certain harbour, made by two capes or points of land, one at the end of an island opposite to the continent of Groenland, the other on the continent. The cape of the isle was named Huidserken, and that of the continent Huarfs, having between both a very good harbour called Santassin, where ships may ride safely at anchor even in the greatest storm.

It appeared to this adventurer most eligible to land on the island, to which he gave the name of Erickland, i. e. Erick's Isle, and continued there all the winter. In the spring he passed over to the continent, which he called Groenland, i. e. the Green Country, from the verdure of its pastures and trees. To the place where he had landed he gave the name of Ericksfjorden, i. e. Erick's Haven; at a small distance from which he built habitations called Oltraburg, i. e. East-borough or plantation. Next autumn he went to the western side, where he erected another plantation called Westreburg. But whether the air of the continent seemed to him colder and sharper than that of the island, or whether he found it less secure, he went back the next winter to

Erickland. He returned, however, from thence the next summer to the continent, taking his course towards the north to the foot of a great rock, which he called Sneefiel, or the Snow-Rock, and thence to a certain harbour, upon which he bestowed the name of Ravensfjorden, or Raven's Harbour, from the great number of those birds he found there. Ravensfjorden lies directly opposite to the north side of Ericksfjorden, which is seated on the south side, being divided only by a branch or arm of the sea. About the end of autumn Erick returned to his island, where he passed the third winter. In the spring he resolved to go in person to Iceland, to engage the inhabitants of that isle, with whom he had a good correspondence, to follow him into Groenland. He described the wonders of this new discovered country, its plenty of large and small cattle, excellent pastures, fish, and all sorts of game, in so alluring a manner, that great numbers of the Icelanders were prevailed on to cross the sea with him into Groenland.

Erick had a son named Leiffe, who accompanied him to Iceland, and from thence crossed over into Norway, where he gave a favourable account, to King Olaus Trugger, of the country discovered by his father. The king of Norway, having then but lately embraced the Christian religion, caused Leiffe to be instructed in the same, and to be baptized. Having continued at his court all the winter, the next summer he sent him back to his father, into Groenland, accompanied by a priest, to instruct Erick and his people in the Christian faith, who, by Leiffe's persuasion, were all baptized. This happened about the year 770 of the Christian era.

As the successors of Erick increased in number in Groenland, they ventured farther into the country, and met with a fruitful soil, meadows, and rivers, in the vallies between the mountains. They divided the country into East and West Groenland, according to the different situations of the two boroughs, Oltraburg and Westreburg, built by Erick. In the east they laid the foundation of a town named Garde, whither the Norwegians transported divers merchandizes, and sold them

hem to the inhabitants. Their posterity advanced, and built a city, to which they gave the name of Albe; and, as their zeal for religion increased, they built a monastery upon the sea shore, dedicated to St. Thomas. The city of Garde was the residence of their bishops; and the church of St. Nicholas (the patron of seamen) the cathedral of Groenland.

In the year 1256 Groenland revolted, and refused to pay tribute to King Magnus, of Norway, which induced King Erick, of Denmark, at the request of King Magnus, who had married his niece, to equip a fleet against them: but they no sooner saw the Danish flags displayed on the coast of Groenland, than they were seized with a panic, which induced them to sue for pardon, and desire peace. The king of Denmark, from the love he bore his niece and her children, would not take any advantage of the weakness of the king of Norway, but left him in full possession of Groenland.

A considerable commerce was carried on between Norway and Groenland, and a regular intercourse maintained, till the year 1046, when the last bishop was sent over to Groenland; but, from that period, all correspondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Groenland consigned to oblivion. This strange and abrupt cessation of trade and intercourse has been ascribed partly to the change and translation of the Norwegian government in the reign of Queen Margaret, partly to the ensuing wars between Denmark and Sweden, which could not fail to interrupt the maritime commerce, and partly to the difficulty and danger which attended the navigation to Groenland. But the most probable cause of such a sudden privation is found in another event. The inland colony, from its first settlement, had been harrassed by the Aborigines of Groenland, a savage barbarous people, agreeing in customs, garb, and appearance, with those Americans who have since been found to the northward of Hudson's Bay. This nation, called the Schrellings, at length prevailed against the Iceland settlers, who had chosen their habitation in the western district, and exterminated them in the 14th century, insomuch, that when their brethren of the eastern district came to their assistance, they found nothing alive but some cattle, and flocks of sheep, running wild about the fields and meadows. Perhaps they themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were totally destroyed by those Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western parts of Groenland, and, from tradition, confirm this conjecture. They affirm, that the houses and villages, whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by a nation of strangers, whom their ancestors destroyed. There are some reasons, however, for believing, that there may be still some descendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eastern district, though they cannot be visited by land on account of the stupendous mountains, perpetually covered with frost and snow, which divide the two parts of Groenland; while they have been rendered inaccessible at sea, from the vast quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, and other northern coasts upon the eastern shore, to which it adheres, forming an insuperable barricade.

All that we gather from authentic records is, that Groenland was divided into two districts, viz. West Bygd, or the western division, and East Bygd, or the eastern division. The western division contained four parishes, and 100 villages. The eastern division was still more flourishing, as being nearer to Iceland, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway.

About a century after all intercourse had subsided between Groenland and Norway, many ships were successively sent by the English and Danes, in order to rediscover, and again settle this country, but all their attempts proved unsuccessful.

The most remarkable of these voyages was made by the English, under Martin Forbisher; we shall, therefore, present the following account of it. In the year 1557 this adventurer set sail from England, to attempt

the discovery of Groenland, which he got sight of at last; but, by reason of the vast quantities of ice, and the approaching winter, not being able to come near the shore, he was forced to return home, where he gave an account of his voyage to Queen Elizabeth, who sent him in the following spring with three ships, to pursue the former design, when he got safe to Groenland. The inhabitants, at the approach of the English, leaving their huts, retired among the rocks, from whence several of them precipitated themselves into the sea. The English, after they had in vain endeavoured to conciliate these savages, went to their huts, where they met with no living creature except an old woman with a child, which they took from her, and she made a most terrible outcry for the loss. From thence they sailed along the coast, where they saw a sea monster's head above water, with a horn about three or four feet long. They landed again, and found the surface of the earth rocky, but very good ground beneath it. They also met with great store of glittering sand, containing gold, of which they took a great quantity with them. They used their utmost endeavours to enter into discourse with the savages, who seemingly shewed no great aversion to them, and gave them to understand, by certain signs, that, if they would row higher up the river, their expectation should be answered. Accordingly Forbisher got a boat with some soldiers, and, having ordered his ship to follow him, went up the river; but seeing great numbers of the savages posted among the rocks, would not expose himself by approaching too near the banks. At last three of the savages, who appeared of some consequence among them, having made a signal for him to land, he resolved to do it, all the rest being at a considerable distance; but his boat scarce touched the bank of the river, when the savages began to appear in great numbers, which caused him to put back again. Nevertheless, the savages endeavoured to persuade them, by signs, to come ashore, throwing to them some raw flesh; but finding the English mistrustful, they resolved to draw them thither by the following stratagem: They laid one of their men upon the bank, who pretending to be lame, they supposed the English would come to take him, whilst they made a shew of retiring to a farther distance, being all out of sight behind the adjacent rocks. The English, being aware of the snare, discharged a gun at him, which made him soon recover his legs, and the savages, coming to his assistance, pelted the English in the boat with stones and arrows, but were soon dispersed by their great guns. Forbisher, however, landed in another place, took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and, besides his glittering sand, brought away great quantities of a black stone, which contained gold ore, and likewise two of the natives, a male and a female, whom he contrived to ensnare.

A third armament was afterwards fitted out, and the command given to Forbisher, who was now promoted to the rank of an admiral. This armament consisted of 15 sail, on board of which were many soldiers, miners, smelters, carpenters, bakers, &c. who were to remain all the winter near the mines, or the places which produced the gold sand, and black stones that contained gold ore. They carried with them all the materials necessary to erect a wooden fort, which might be put together as soon as they landed, the different pieces having been properly prepared in England. They, however, met with boisterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and prodigious strong currents, on the coast of Groenland, which retarded their operations till the season was too far advanced. They had likewise lost part of their wooden fort at sea, and had neither fuel or provisions sufficient to subsist those who were appointed to be left there during the winter. On these accounts the admiral determined to procure as much ore as he possibly could, and then return to England, without leaving any person behind him. Pursuant to this design, they traced out a mine, to which they gave the name

of the countess of Suffex, and from which they procured a great quantity of ore, having erected a house of lime and stone, provided with ovens, and many other conveniences, for their residence and security during their stay. In order to attract the notice, and gain the affection of the natives, they left behind them looking-glasses, beads, knives, bells, leaden pictures, and other things, with some loaves of bread, &c.

Before their departure they sowed corn and other grain, peas, &c. by way of experiment, to try how they would thrive, and ascertain what the country would produce, on their return the ensuing year. They likewise buried the remaining part of the wooden fort, in such a manner as to be able easily to find it again; and having taken these necessary precautions, set sail from hence in the commencement of September, and, after a disagreeable passage of a month, arrived safe in England.

This noble design being abandoned by the English, the Danes took it up, and endeavoured, in several expeditions, to complete it. The first of these was undertaken under the command of Godske Lindenow with three ships. When he arrived upon the east coast of Groenland he found none but wild and uncivilized people. He staid three days, during which time the wild Groenlanders came to trade with him, changing furs and skins, with pieces of precious stones, for all kinds of small trifling iron-ware, as knives, scissars, needles, &c. common looking-glasses, and other such trifles. When he set sail from thence there were two Groenlanders remaining in the ship whom he carried off and brought home with him. The other ships that set sail in company, under the command of Lindenow, after they had doubled Cape Farewell, steered directly for Davis's Strait: in this navigation they discovered many fine convenient harbours and delightful meadows; but all the inhabitants along the coast were wild and savage as before. These ships brought four savages home with them to Copenhagen.

Nothing can be more repugnant to the dictates of common justice than this practise of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families and connexions, unless we suppose them altogether destitute of natural affection. That this was not the case with those poor Groenlanders, who were brought to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their first capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When first made captives they rent the air with their cries and lamentations: they even leaped into the sea, and when taken on board for some time refused all sustenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the countenance of his Danish majesty, and the caresses of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to shed tears always when he saw an infant in the mother's arms; a circumstance from whence it was naturally concluded that he had left a wife with a young child in Groenland. Two of them went to sea in a small canoe, in hopes of reaching Groenland, but one of them was retaken: two more made the same attempt, but were driven by a storm on the coast of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peasants, and re-conveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught by fishing for pearl during the winter for the governor of Kolding. The rest lived some years in Denmark; but at length, seeing no prospect of being able to re-visit their native country, sunk into a kind of melancholy disorder, and expired."

The second expedition was made in the year 1606, with five ships, under the command of the before-mentioned admiral Lindenow. This time he directed his course to the westward of Cape Farewell, standing for Davis's Strait, where, coasting along, he took the survey of several plans, and returned home again.

The third expedition proved abortive on account of the ice.

The fourth, under captain John Munk, in the year 1626, was not made for the discovery of Groenland, but to find out a passage between Groenland and America to China.

Besides these four expeditions at the king's cost, a fifth was undertaken, by a company of merchants at Copenhagen, in the year 1636. They fitted out two ships, which, directing their course to the westward of Groenland, fell in with the Strait of Davis, where they traded for some time with the savages; but this was not the principal object of the commander, who was acquainted with a coast the sand of which had the colour and weight of gold: he accordingly directed his course thither, and freighted the ships with the same. After his return to Copenhagen the goldsmiths were ordered to make trial whether this sand would yield any gold or not. But not being skilful enough to make such trial, condemned it to be all thrown overboard; which was done accordingly by order of the high-chancellor, president of the company. Some part of this sand was, however, kept as a curiosity, out of which a skilful artificer, who afterwards came to Copenhagen, extracted a great deal of pure gold. The honest and well-meaning commander, who went upon this adventure, was turned out of favour, and died soon after of grief, whereby not only the treasure he had brought home, but also the knowledge of the place where it was to be found, was entirely lost, as he kept this a profound secret.

After some other unsuccessful expeditions, the Danes laid aside all thoughts of Groenland till the year 1721, when, after many well-concerted plans proposed by Mr. Egede (a learned and ingenious divine) to the Groenland company at Bergen in Norway, approved and authorised by Frederic IV. the company resolved not only to send ships, but also to settle a colony in Groenland, on the river Boalt, in latitude 64. Mr. Egede himself went over thither, and continued there fifteen years. During his stay he endeavoured to get all the intelligence he could procure, both by sea and land, of the state of the country. Nor did he lose his labour; for he met with some places that formerly were inhabited by the ancient Norwegians, on the western shore.

But his main design being to discover the eastern district of Groenland, which was always deemed the best of the Norwegian colonies, he resolved to make the voyage in person. Accordingly he coasted along southward as far as the States Promontory (called Staten-Hoeck in the maps) in latitude 60, looking out for Forbisher's Strait, which would have been his shortest way, according to those charts which lay the strait down in this place; but he failed in his design, probably through the advanced state of the season, the month of September being nearly at an end, when the winter commences in those parts, attended with dreadful storms.

In the year 1724 the directors of the Bergen company fitted out a ship to attempt a landing on the eastern shore, which lies opposite to Iceland; but the large quantity of ice which barricaded the coast rendered that enterprize abortive, as many others had been before. As there was no possibility for ships to approach this shore, the king, in the year 1728, resolved to have horses transported to this colony, in hopes that, by their help travelling might be effected by land to the eastern district. But this project proved impracticable, on account of the high and craggy mountains perpetually covered with snow. All these difficulties, and continual disappointments, made most people lose every hope of succeeding in this attempt.

Mr. Egede offered it as his opinion, that it might be rendered practicable by coasting the land from the States Promontory, or (as the Danes now call it) Cape Christian northwards. This opinion was confirmed by information received from some Groenlanders, who, with their boats, had coasted a great part of the east side. It is judged, however, on the whole, unsafe for any

any ship to venture so far up, under the eastern shore, as the 62d degree of latitude, and recommended as more practicable, as well as prudent, to coast it from the Promontory along the shore in small vessels. By this means a constant correspondence might be maintained betwixt the colonies, though large ships can only touch at the most southerly.

Description of the Country; Climate, Soil, Productions Vegetable, Animal, &c.

GROENLAND, West Greenland, or Old Greenland, begins in 59 deg. 50 min. north lat. The eastern coast is supposed to extend as far northward as Spitzbergen, or East Greenland; and the western part is only separated by a channel of 40 miles in breadth. The western shore has been discovered higher than the 70th deg. of north lat.

This country is exceeding mountainous; and the mountains are so very high that they may be discerned at sea at the distance of 30 leagues. The inland mountains and hills are perpetually covered with snow; but the low lands on the sea side are, in summer, clothed with verdure. The coast is difficult of access, on account of the great number of rocks with which the surrounding seas, and the mouths of the Groenland rivers, abound, independent of the vast mountains of floating ice which seem to threaten the adventurous navigator with destruction.

From the most southerly part of Groenland to the 68th degree of north latitude is not so severe as might at first be imagined. The summer includes the latter end of May, the whole of June, July and August, and half the month of September; during which the weather is generally warm: while the wind blows easterly the sky is always serene, but when it veres to the other points storms are sure to ensue. The sea coast is generally infested with unhealthy and disagreeable fogs, which are, however, so fattening to the land, that the shores are covered with verdure; but the inland mountains are perfectly capped with snow.

To the northward of the 68th degree the weather is much more severe, and the cold so very intense, that even in the midst of summer the very strongest spirituous liquors will freeze close to the fire side. The winter in this part continues from September to May, and sometimes June, during which time the sea is covered with vast mountains of ice. "Nothing (says an eminent writer) can exhibit a more dreadful, and, at the same time, a more dazzling appearance than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the whole coast in different forms of rocks, castles, towers and spires, reflecting a variety of colours according to the nature of the concrete, and floating from place to place as if the whole scene was illusion, or enchantment; such are the prospects they yield in calm weather, but when the winds begin to blow, and the sea to swell in vast successive billows, the conflict of those congregated bodies of ice encountering, dashing, cracking, hursting, and shivering into ten thousand fragments, fills the eye and ear with terror and astonishment. Thunder and lightning seldom disturb the air of Groenland, which, however, is subject to many other natural phenomena, such as shooting stars, and in particular the *aurora borealis*, or northern lights. In the spring of the year, and about the new moon, this phenomenon appears so universally bright over the face of the whole northern sky, darting its rays, and glaring with such radiancy, as to afford sufficient light whereby to read.

At the summer solstice there is no night, and those who reside here have the pleasure to see the sun turn about the horizon all the twenty-four hours: but in the depth of winter they have but little comfort in that planet, the nights being proportionably long; yet they can see to travel up and down the country, though sometimes it is neither moon-shine or star-light.

The temperature of the air is not unwholesome; for,

except the scurvy, and the distemper of the lungs, the inhabitants know nothing of many other diseases with which other countries are plagued; and these pectoral infirmities are not so much the effects of the excessive cold, as of the foggy weather, to which this country is very much subject. From the beginning of April to the end of July is the foggy season; and from that time the fog daily decreases. But as in the summer-time they are troubled with fogs, so in the winter season they are plagued with the vapour called frost-smoak, which, when the cold is excessive, rises out of the sea, as the smoak out of a chimney, and is as thick as the thickest mist, especially in bays, where there is any opening in the ice.

There is a wonderful harmony and correspondence observed in Groenland between fountains and the main sea: at spring tides in new and full moon, when the strongest ebbing is at sea, the hidden fountains or springs of fresh water break out on the shore, and discover themselves often in places where they might be little expected, especially in winter, when the ground is covered with ice and snow; yet at other times there are no water springs in those places.

The hills of Groenland are barren, and indeed frozen all the year; the low lands are tolerably fertile, particularly towards the sea. A few oak trees are found in the southern parts near the States Promontory.

In these particular parts the meadows are rich in grass: turnips and coleworts are easily raised, and excellently flavoured: underwood, which grows to a vast height, is plentiful: birch, elm and willows are not scarce, and juniper-berries grow in abundance.

The herb angelica grows wild, and is found in great profusion: it is endued with a turpentine flavour, and yields an aromatic oil, which is extracted by distillation.

The shores abound with a pleasant and salutary kind of scurvy-grass, and the mountains near the bays and creeks are covered with wild thyme. A species of grass bearing yellow flowers, the herb tormentil, and many other plants, herbs and vegetables, abound in this country. The fruits of Groenland are bramble-berries, bil-berries, blue-berries, and juniper-berries. Here it is to be observed, when any thing is said relative to the fertility of Groenland, that the southern parts are only meant, for with respect to the northern parts they are destitute of herbs and plants.

Groenland produces various metals: to the southward of the Dutch colony copper ore is found. Mr. Egede once received a lump of ore from a Groenlander, and himself found calamine of a yellow colour. He likewise sent a considerable quantity of, yellow sand mixed with vermilion streaks to the Bergen company, who, by letter, requested him to procure as much as possible of that commodity: he could not, however, execute his commission as he was never after able to find the place where he got the first specimen: it was, it seems, one of the smallest among a great cluster of islands, and the mark he had set up was blown down by a storm, so that he could not a second time trace out the spot.

Rock chrystals, both red and white, are the produce of this country; and a bastard marble, of various colours, is very plentiful about the Danish colony, which is known by the name of Good Hope; of the latter the natives make bowls, lamps, pots, and crucibles. The seas and bays, besides a variety of beautiful shells, yield great quantities of excellent coral. But one of the greatest natural curiosities of this country is the asbestos, or amianthus, which has the vulgar appellation of earth-flax, and is a fibrous, flexible, and mineral substance, composed of short and abrupt filaments. It is a stony concrete, of the talcky kind, though differing from tale in its external appearance. It is neither so bright, so smooth, or so unctuous, and is not composed of leaves or plates, but of long filaments, like flax. It has been spun into cloth, and formed into paper, both of an incombustible nature, and not to be consumed

sumed by fire. Some kinds have filaments that are rigid and brittle, and others more flexible. The first cannot be spun, or formed into cloth; the latter may, but not without difficulty. This manufacture appears to have been known to the ancients, who, according to Pliny, wrapped the bodies of the dead in cloth made of earth-flax, to preserve their ashes separate from those of the funeral pile, a use to which this kind of cloth is still applied by some of the Tartarian chiefs.

Groenland is not infested with any ravenous animal, the great white bear excepted, which, however, very seldom appears near the Danish colony.

The quadrupedes of Groenland are dogs, foxes, hares, and rein-deer. The dogs are large and rough, white or speckled; and their ears stand upright, which is a peculiarity belonging to curs in general in all cold climates. These dogs are timorous and stupid, do not bark, but make a most dismal howling at times. In the northern parts they are rendered of infinite service, as the natives there yoke them to sledges, which, when heavily laden, they are able to draw upon the ice at the rate of 70 miles a day. These poor useful animals are, however, very ill rewarded for their services, being left to provide for themselves, except when their owners happen to be successful in taking a great number of seals, at which times their masters gratify them with a meal, composed of the entrails and blood.

The foxes appear of different colours, white, grey, and blueish. They are neither so hairy, or so large, as those of Denmark and Norway.

Hares are found in Groenland in great abundance: they are of a white colour, very fat in summer, and of an exquisite flavour.

Rein-deer feed in great herds, and are hunted all the summer by the natives, who are usually accompanied by their wives and children in these excursions, and penetrate very far into the country in pursuit of their game.

Serpents, lizards, toads, newts, &c. are unknown in Groenland; but gnats swarm in the summer time, and are exceedingly troublesome.

Partridges, which are white in winter, and grey in summer, abound here; as do sparrows, linnets, snow-birds, and ice-birds.

A great number of ravens hover about the huts of the Groenlanders, as, near the habitations of these people, the ground is usually strewed with the offals of seals, and other fish. Groenland likewise abounds with eagles and falcons of a prodigious size, and large speckled owls.

The insects of this country are bees, wasps, spiders, and flies. The people, however, are not plagued with beetles, ants, rats, or mice.

The Groenlanders are fond of the seal, which contributes at once to their sustenance and convenience. There is some difference in seals, but the most remarkable species is that called the Cap-miss, which appellation it receives from the cap, or cawl, with which it covers its head occasionally. The head itself resembles that of a dog with cropped ears, his snout is bearded like a cat, his eyes are large, and his teeth sharp. His skin is covered with a short thick fur, which is white, black, brown, or tawny: he is web-footed, which is a great convenience to him in swimming; and he seems to drag himself along, rather than walk.

Seals are from five to eight feet in length. The fat of this creature furnishes the Groenlanders with oil, the flesh with food, the skin with cloathing, and with coverings for their huts and boats.

Besides seals, the Groenland seas abound with tur-but, cod, haddock, scate, salmon, halibut, cat-fish, roe-fish, flents, whiting, bream, muscles, crabs, shrimps, &c.

That astonishing creature the whale will be amply described from some late minute observations, under the article of East or New Greenland.

With respect to sea fowl, the principal, in Groenland, is the edder-fowl, swarms of which, at times,

seem to cover the whole surface of the ocean. In the warm season infinite numbers of them hover about the Danish colony every evening, and take their flight to the sea regularly the ensuing morning. In spring they retire to the islands to lay their eggs, and hatch their young, and return to the continent about June or July. The Groenlanders are very fond of their eggs and their young, but make no manner of use of their fine down feathers, which are excellent in their kind, and to be found in large quantities in and about their nests.

There are three species of ducks, which are found in, or frequent Groenland. The first, which is of the tame duck kind, has fine speckled feathers, and lays and hatches its eggs in the islands, returning afterwards with its young to the continent. The second sort is smaller, has a long pointed bill, frequents only fresh waters, and builds its nest in the flags, or reeds of rivers. The third kind, which is the largest of all, has the appellation of the wood-duck, and is distinguished by a black breast and grey belly.

The alkes is another kind of sea fowl, which the Groenlanders are fond of feeding on: it is less than a duck, and of a rancid taste. But the most beautiful sea bird of these parts is the tungoviarsek. This bird is not bigger than a lark, but its feathers are uncommonly elegant. Swarms of wild geese come to the northern parts of Groenland, from more southern climates, in the spring, and breed, and quit the place at the commencement of winter. Many sea-mews build in the rocks and cliffs; and sea-terns lay their eggs on the islands about Groenland. Lundes, or Groenland sea-parrots, are common here, as are sea-eines, and sea-snipes.

Descent, Persons, Dress, Disposition, Food, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, Amusements, particular Customs, Employment, Weapons, Habitations, Articles of Traffic, Language, Religion, Diseases, scientific Knowledge, &c. of the Inhabitants of Groenland.

ACCORDING to the concurring testimony of different authors, the native or original Groenlanders are descended from the Schrellings, who formerly exterminated the Iceland settlers. These people bear a near resemblance to the Laplanders and Samoides, in their persons, complexions, and way of life. There will always be found a strong affinity between the customs of different nations living in the same kind of climate, exposed to the same wants and necessities, and involved in the same ignorance and brutality. The Groenlanders are short of stature, thick made, and inclined to fat: their faces are broad, their lips thick, and their noses flat. They have black hair and eyes, and yellow complexions, possess health and vigour, but have very short lives.

Their cloaths are, for the most part, made of rein-deer, or seal skins; as also of birds skins, nicely dressed and prepared. The mens habits are, a coat or jacket, with a cape or hood sewed to it, to cover the head and shoulders. This coat reaches nearly to the knees. Their breeches are very small, not coming above their loins, that they may not hinder them in getting into their boats; and the hair of the skins the coat is made of is turned inward to keep them warm. Over this coat they put on a large frock, made of seal skins dressed and tanned, without hair, in order to keep out the water; and thus they are dressed when they go to sea. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen shirt, or, for want of linen, one made of seals guts, which also helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Of late they appear sometimes in more gaudy dresses; as shirts made of striped linen, and coats and breeches of red and blue stuffs or cloth, which they buy of the Danish or Dutch merchants, but fashioned after their own way. In these they parade and feast, when they keep holidays on shore. The hose they wore formerly were made of rein-deer or seal-skins; but now they prefer our sort of worsted,

worsted, of different colours, white, blue, and red, which they buy of the Danes. Their shoes and boots are made of seal-skins, red or yellow, well dressed and annealed. They are nicely wrought, with folds behind and before, without heels, and sit well upon the feet. The only difference between the dress of the men and women is, that the women's coats are higher on the shoulders, and wider than the men's, with higher and larger hoods. The married women, that have children, wear much larger coats than the rest, like gowns, because they must carry their children in them upon their backs. They wear drawers which reach to the middle of the thigh, and over them breeches. The drawers they always keep on, and sleep in them. Their breeches come down to the knees: these they do not wear in summer or in winter, but when they go abroad; and, as soon as they come home, they pull them off again. Next to their bodies they wear a waistcoat made of young fawn-skins, with the hairy side inward. The coat, or upper garment, is also made of fine coloured swan-skins, or (in defect of that) seal-skins, trimmed and edged with white, and neatly wrought in the seams, and about the brim. Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot. They commonly go bare-headed, as well without as within doors: nor are they covered with hoods, but in case of rain or snow. Their chief ornaments are glass beads, of divers colours, or coral, about their necks and arms, and pendants in their ears. They also wear bracelets made of black skin set with pearls, with which they trim their cloaths and shoes. Some have, besides this, another sort of embellishment; they make long black strokes between the eyes on the forehead, upon the chin, arms, and hands, and even upon the thighs and legs. They keep their cloaths pretty clean, though in other things, especially in their victuals, they are not so nice. The women, in general, who have children, are very dirty and slovenly, well knowing that they cannot be repudiated. But those unfortunate women that are barren, or whose children are dead, and do not know the moment they may be sent away, are obliged to take more care to be cleanly, that they may please their husbands.

With respect to disposition, the Groenlanders are good-natured and orderly, but indolent, dull, and phlegmatic. They live peaceably without laws, and act regularly without discipline.

In cases of murder (which, however, seldom happen) no cognizance is taken of the murderer, unless the nearest relation to the deceased thinks proper, personally, to revenge his death. Old women, who, from an untoward disposition, are supposed to be witches, they kill, by the unanimous consent of the neighbourhood.

As they think all the productions of nature designed for mankind in general, they deem every thing common property. This naturally obviates the idea of robbery, as none can steal where he has a right to take whatever he happens to lay his hands on. But this idea they extend to strangers, and take as freely from them as from their own neighbours, which occasions them to have a worse name than they deserve; as the notions they are brought up in excuse, in some measure, their supposed delinquency.

Fornication and adultery are unknown to the Groenlanders, except upon particular occasions, when certain ceremonials, at which both sexes attend, admit of promiscuous intercourse; and these permissions do not proceed so much from vice as arbitrary custom; for, in general, the Groenlanders are modest, civil, generous, and hospitable. Only married people are admitted to the above mentioned festivals; for the unmarried, of both sexes, are remarkable for their modesty and continency. To confirm this assertion, Mr. Egede, the Danish missionary, says, he never saw any of them hold any loose conversation, or shew the least inclination to it, either in word or deed. During fifteen years that he lived in Groenland, he did not hear of

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more than two or three unmarried young women who were pregnant; because it is reckoned the greatest disgrace.

The most exceptionable propensity of the Groenlanders is their being so exceeding dirty, for they are slovens to a degree of beastiality. The men are so fond of dirt, that they never wash themselves with clean water, but, in the manner of cats, lick their fingers, and clean their faces, as well as they can, with the spittle. They even eat their victuals in the same bowls and platters that have been licked by their half starved dogs, without the least idea of making them clean. The women think they are never so sweet as when they wash themselves in urine, that being deemed their grand perfume; and a female, when so cleaned, imagines her smell to be peculiarly grateful. Even the men adopt this opinion so far as to compliment a woman, after having been thus scowered, with the title of *niviarfiar suarneaks*, or, maidenly sweet. Company never hinders either sex from complying with the calls of nature; and the utensils for those purposes being always in the same room as the family, a disagreeable effluvia arises, which is extremely offensive to any but those who are, by long use, familiarized to such stench. Many of these people soak raw hides in those very utensils, which contributes considerably to the nauseous smell of the place, and renders a Groenlander's habitation almost insufferable.

The Groenlanders feed upon the flesh of sea-partridges, hares, seals, rein-deer, and whales. Their flesh-meat they eat either boiled, dried in the sun or wind, or raw. Their fish they either boil or dry thoroughly. Indeed, it is by perfectly drying that they preserve their salmon, halibut, or stents, which are caught in the summer, and laid up for winter store: for these people, with all their ignorance, are as careful as the ant in providing for future exigencies. Seals are only to be caught in the summer, unless they happen, in the winter, now and then to meet with a few floating upon the ice. The mode of preserving these animals is by burying them under the snow, from whence they are dug out as occasion requires, and eaten without further preparation. They are as nasty in eating as other things; for they never clean either platters, pots, or kettles; and the dirty ground serves them for a table. But they act wiser than many more polished nations, in not eating set meals at particular hours, but gratifying the calls of hunger when the craving appetite requires. The women usually eat by themselves; but when the Groenlanders return from sea, they make merry together, and regale sumptuously.

As these people are not delicate in their appetites, they are not very particular, in times of scarcity, with respect to their food, as they will feed upon pieces of rotten skins, sea-weeds, flags, any kind of roots, whale's fat, train oil, &c. In summer they use wood as fuel to dress such victuals as they do not choose to eat raw; but, in winter, they usually boil their food upon their train-oil lamps. Their kettles are made either of brass, copper, or marble, and, in general, manufactured by themselves. Their method of kindling a fire is by the friction of a piece of hard wood upon a dried fir-tree block.

The Danes found great difficulty in bringing the Groenlanders to taste their provisions. Some, however, at length came to be fond of bread and butter; but very few have, as yet, overcome their strong aversion to spirituous liquors; and none can be persuaded to chew or smoke tobacco.

The men are commonly contented with one wife. There are some, indeed, but those are very few, that keep two, three, or four wives; but these pass for heroes, or more than ordinary men; because, by their industry, they are able to maintain so many wives and children. Before the arrival of the Danes, jealousy never prevailed among those wives; but they agreed well together; though the first wife was reckoned the mistress. But since the Danes have informed them of the

the word and will of God, importing, that, in the beginning, the all-wise Creator made one man and one woman to live in matrimony as husband and wife, there have been some resentment in the wives, when their husbands have been disposed to take any others beside them. They have applied to Mr. Egede, desiring him to put a stop to such a proceeding. Also, when he has instructed them in their catechism, they have always reminded him fully to instruct their husbands in the duty of the seventh commandment. They refrain from marrying their next relations, even in the third degree, deeming such matches unwarrantable and unnatural. It is likewise censurable, if a young man and woman, that have served and been educated in one family, should desire to be married together; for they look upon them as brother and sister.

Their marriage ceremonies are as follow. When a young man fancies a maiden, he commonly proposes it to the parents and relations on both sides. After he has obtained their consent, he procures two or more old women to fetch the bride. These go to the place where the young woman is, and carry her away by force; for, though she approves of the match, yet, out of modesty, she must affect coyness, in order to avoid the censure of forwardness. After she is brought to the bridegroom's house, she keeps, for some time, at a distance, and sits retire, in some corner, upon a bench, with her hair dishevelled, and her face veiled. In the mean while the bridegroom uses all the rhetoric he is master of, and spares no caresses to bring her to compliance, which being effected, the maiden yields to his embraces, and the wedding is over.

Husbands often repudiate their wives, either if they do not suit their humours, or if they are barren, (which they hold to be very ignominious,) and for many other reasons: but if they have children by them they keep them for life.

The robust constitution of the women is particularly evinced in child-bearing; for as soon as it is over they will go to work, and do their ordinary business: but sometimes it costs them their lives. They have a tender love for their children. The mother always carries her infant upon her back, wrapped up in her coat, wherever she goes, or whatever business she has in hand; for they have no cradles. They suckle their children till they are three or four years old, or more; because, in their tender infancy, they cannot digest the strong victuals that the rest must live upon.

They are negligent in the education of their children, for they never chastize or correct them when they do amiss, but leave them to their own discretion: notwithstanding which, when they are grown up to years of maturity, they seldom seem inclined to vice. Altho' they shew no great respect to their parents in any outward forms, they are always very willing to do what they order them. They are under the care of their parents, boys as well as girls, till they are married; afterwards they shift for themselves; yet they continue to dwell in the same house, or under the same roof, with their fathers, together with other kindred and relations; and what they get they all enjoy in common.

On the death of a Groenlander all his property is thrown away as impure and unfortunate. All who reside in the same house are obliged to carry whatever belongs to them into the open air to purify; but in the evening they fetch their effects back again. They dress the corpse in its best apparel, bend the legs under the back, wrap the whole up in rein-deer and seal skins, and bury it under a heap of stones. Those who are concerned in the funeral are for some time deemed unclean; and the mourners, to testify their grief, make most hideous howlings. A corpse is always conveyed out of the back part of a hut, but never through the door; and, at the funeral, a woman lights a stick, and, waving it round her head, pronounces the words "Pikleruk pok," which is, he is no more to be procured.

They fix a dog's head upon the burial place of a young child, for this curious reason, that as a child is

deficient in point of understanding, it would not be capable of finding its way to the land of spirits without a faithful dog to run before and guide it.

The principal amusements of the Groenlanders are singing in a very harsh discordant manner, dancing after a very rustic mode, running, wrestling, foot-ball, &c. They very seldom quarrel with each other, not having, indeed, in their language any scurrilous words, or such as are calculated to express anger or resentment. They are never known to fight: but when a Groenlander conceives himself aggrieved or affronted, he challenges the aggressor to a trial of satirical skill, or bandy sarcasm with him. The two parties meet accordingly, when the challenger begins first, and, in a humorous poetical manner, charges his antagonist with having affronted him, and likewise recapitulates whatever faults or follies he has been guilty of. The person challenged replies in a similar strain, exculpates himself as well as he can, and retorts by recounting the errors of the challenger. In this war of words, if the challenger has the advantage, his antagonist is obliged to apologize for having affronted him; but, on the contrary, if he is out-satirized, he must confess himself wrong, and beg pardon for having made the accusation. Let the satirical contest conclude how it will, a reconciliation is sure to take place, and the day to conclude with the utmost mirth and festivity. In this manner terminate the quarrels of the Groenlanders, and such is their severest resentment. It is to be wished that nations which pretend to great politeness and benevolence, would terminate their differences in a like sensible and friendly manner, without having recourse to that Gothic, unchristian, and inhuman practice of duelling, or appealing to the savage brutality of blows.

The songs, which are sung at their assemblies, are satires against their neighbours follies, or rather good-natured poetical documents and representations of each others faults. The person who sings always beats a little drum with his finger, as an accompaniment to his verses, and likewise makes strange gesticulations for the greater entertainment of those present.

The greatest part of the year is employed by these people either in hunting or fishing. The principal game they hunt is the rein-deer. To pursue this animal they penetrate into the interior parts, accompanied by their whole families. Having found a herd of rein-deer, a number of Groenlanders surround them at a considerable distance, and then, with shouts and hideous yellings, drive them into a narrow compass, by contracting the circle they have formed round them. The animals being thus cooped up, become an easy prey, and may be killed with great facility.

The hunting weapons of the Groenlanders are fir-tree bows, wound about with the twisted sinews of animals, and strung with the same, or with slips of seal-skins. The arrows are near six feet in length, and bearded with iron or sharp pointed bone: but those they shoot birds with are blunt pointed, that they may not tear the flesh, the blow being sufficient to kill the bird, without mangling it. In killing sea fowls they use lances, which they throw with astonishing dexterity, and very seldom miss the mark.

Their method of whale-fishing is different from what is practised by other Europeans. When they set out upon those expeditions, they go in a large long-boat, called *kone-boat*, because it is rowed by women; for the word *kone* implies a woman. About 50 persons go in one of these boats, and when they find a whale, the men strike him with their harpoons, to which are fastened, with very long lines, blown seal-skins, which are filled with wind like bladders. These artificial bladders are of infinite use to the Groenlanders in their whale-fishing; for, by floating on the surface of the sea, they not only discover the track of the whale after he is wounded, but hinder him from diving under the water for any length of time. When the whale loses his strength, and is exhausted by fatigue, the Groenlanders again attack him with spears and lances till he expires.

expires. On this occasion they are clad in skin coats, consisting of only one piece, with boots, gloves, and caps, sewed and laced so tight together, that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they jump into the sea, and begin to slice the fat all round the whale's body, even under water: for in these coats they cannot sink, as they are always full of air; so that they can stand upright in the sea. Nay, they are sometimes so daring that they will get upon the whale's back while there is yet life in him, to make an end of him, and cut away his fat.

Seals are taken by various methods, such as striking them with harpoons, similar, in form, to those used in whale-fishing, but much smaller; watching them when they come to breathe at the air holes in the ice, and striking them with lances, approaching them disguised like their own species, that is, covered with a seal-skin, creeping upon the ice, and wagging the head in the very same manner as a seal; by which means the Groenlander approaches the animal without suspicion, and kills him with his lance. Previous to the falling of the snow, these people can see the seals through the transparent ice, and trace them to the openings, where they are easily killed. They are likewise surprized while they bask themselves in the sun, either upon rocks or floating pieces of ice. The Groenlanders angle with lines made of whalebone, cut very small, and generally catch a great many fish. The halibut is caught with lines of hemp, or seal-skin. Salmon and roe-fish are taken by means of weirs or stone enclosures, into which the tide carries them at flood, and leaves them on dry land at low water. Stent fish are caught by means of netting extended upon poles. They are dried upon the rocks in the open air, and serve for part of the winter provision of the natives, being dressed in melted fat or train oil.

They have two sorts of boats: the one, which the men alone make use of, is a small vessel, and sharp pointed at both ends, three fathoms in length, and but three quarters of a yard wide at most, with a round hole in the middle, just large enough for a man's body to enter, and sit down in it. The inside of the boat is made of thin rafts, tacked together with the sinews of animals; and the outside is covered with seal-skins, dressed, and without hair. No more than one can sit in it, who fastens it so tight about his waist that no water can penetrate it. In these small boats they go to sea, managing them with one oar, a fathom long, broad at both ends, with which they paddle about in the most stormy weather, to catch seals and sea fowls; and if they happen to overset, easily raise themselves, and recover their boats by the means of their paddles. The kone-boat is made in the same manner, but more durable, and longer, being 60 feet in length, and likewise has a mast, with a triangular sail, which is made of the membranes and entrails of seals, and managed with the help of braces and bowlings. The women build, repair, and row these boats, and likewise build all the Groenlanders huts; the whole mechanic employment of the men being to make hunting implements and fishing-tackle.

This country is but thinly peopled. The huts which the inhabitants reside in during winter are low, and built of stone and turf. The windows are on one side, made of the bowels of seals, dressed, and sewed together, or of the maws of halibuts, and are white and transparent. On the other side are placed their beds, which consist of shelves or benches, made of deal boards, raised half a yard from the ground. Their bedding is made of seal or rein-deer skins. Several families live together in one of these houses or huts, each family occupying a room by itself, separated from the rest by wooden posts, by which also the roof is supported. Before the posts there is a hearth or fire place, in which is placed a great lamp, in the form of a half-moon, seated on a trivet. Over this are hung their kettles of brass, copper, or marble, in which they boil their victuals. Under the roof, just above the lamp,

they have a sort of rack, or shelf, to put their wet clothes upon. They burn train-oil in their lamps, and moss serves them as a substitute for wick. The door of the hut is low, that as little cold as possible may be admitted. The house is lined with old skins within, and surrounded with benches. The men and women sit to work with their backs to each other. In the summer the Groenlanders dwell in tents made of long poles, fixed in a conical form, covered with deer-skins within, and outwardly with dressed seal-skins, so that rain cannot pierce them.

The Groenlanders traffic with the Danes, by exchanging whalebone, blubber, train-oil, horns of sea-unicorns, rein-deer skins, seal ditto, and fox ditto, for coats, shirts, stockings, knives, hand-saws, needles, angling-hooks, chests, boards, looking-glasses, toys, &c. &c.

The language of the Groenlanders is guttural, and full of consonants. The alphabet is without the letters C, D, Q, X; and they have a great number of polysyllables, like the people of North America.

These people treat the Danish missionaries with great respect, and attend to what they preach with the utmost patience; but at the same time hear them with the most mortifying indifference; so that those gentlemen make but few proselytes, or, at least, if any are converted, they seldom long remember what has been said to them. Those who remain in their original superstition believe in the immortality of the soul, but have very confused and inadequate ideas of the Deity, whom they call *Torngarfeck*, and suppose that he resides either in the bowels of the earth, or in the sea. They likewise believe in another spirit, whom they call *Innirirrisok*, or the restrainer, because they fancy he prevents them from eating or drinking what is pernicious, and from doing wrong in other things. A third spirit, called *Erloerfortok*, or the gutter, they represent as a monster, and imagine he lives upon the entrails of the dead. They suppose all the elements to be filled with spirits; and believe that their priests, whom they call *Angekuts*, have each one of these spirits as an attendant or familiar; and this ideal familiar spirit they call *Tornagb*, and fancy that he always comes with great readiness to the *Angekut* when summoned.

When an *Angekut* pretends to invoke the great spirit *Torngarfeck*, he retires to some unfrequented place, where none of the people dare follow him, and, on his return, makes them believe that he has invoked *Torngarfeck*, who answered his invocation by appearing in such a horrid form that he was overcome by terror, sickened, sunk into a trance, and remained without signs of life for the space of three days, and that when he recovered, he found himself endued with the spirit of conjuration.

These *Angekuts* are very great impostors, and, by a great variety of artifices, maintain an entire ascendancy over the poor deluded people.

The principal diseases of the Groenlanders are of a scorbutic nature, and they are greatly accustomed to weak eyes, which latter disorder is occasioned by the sharp piercing winds incident to the country, and the white glare reflected from the ice and snow, with which the whole country is covered so great a part of the year. The small-pox being brought among these people in the year 1734, from Copenhagen, made great havock. With respect to surgery or physic, they are extremely ignorant. Their great specific plaister for all kinds of wounds, is a composition of the bark of a tree, burned moss, and train-oil; and all their instruments of surgery consist in a common knife, a fish-hook, and a needle.

The Groenlanders are utterly ignorant of natural philosophy, and, indeed, of science in general, a small smattering of astronomy excepted; for they have made insufficient observations on the stars to be able to steer by them at sea. They measure time by months, commencing the year after the sun's first rising above the horizon in the winter, and by every month they are precisely

precisely acquainted with the proper times for killing, or taking, the several species of fishes, fowls, animals, &c. So that their little astronomy serves to direct all their avocations, such as remaining at home to do their little domestic and mechanic works, going abroad to hunt, fish, and the like.

SECTION II.

EAST GREENLAND, NEW GREENLAND, or the Country of SPITZBERGEN.

Account of the Discovery, including a Detail of the Voyages undertaken by divers Navigators in quest of a Passage to the East Indies by the North Pole.

THE idea of a passage to the East Indies by the North Pole was first suggested in the year 1527 by a merchant of Bristol, who addressed Henry VIII. on that subject; but the plan he proposed was never put into execution.

The first attempt was made in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1553, by Sir Hugh Willoughby, who sailed with three ships to the latitude of 75 deg. north, within sight, as it was supposed, of Greenland, which was afterwards re-discovered by the Dutch, and named Spitzbergen. Being driven back by a storm, he was compelled to winter in the river Arzena, in Lapland, where himself and his whole company were unfortunately frozen to death.

Three years after captain Burroughs, comptroller of the navy to queen Elizabeth, succeeded Sir Hugh Willoughby in attempting this discovery. He passed the north cape in the year 1556, penetrated to the 78th deg. of north lat. discovered the wygate, or strait, which separates the country of the Samoides from Nova Zembla; and then returned to England, contented with having proceeded much farther than his predecessor.

The report made by captain Burroughs occasioned queen Elizabeth to fit out two stout vessels to perfect the discovery. These were put into commission, and the command given to captain Jackman and captain Pell, who, in the year 1580, passed the strait which captain Burroughs had discovered, and entered the eastern sea; but there the mountains of ice were so dreadful, and the weather so tempestuous, that captain Pell, with his ship and crew, were lost, and captain Jackman returned to England. The bad success of this expedition occasioned the ardour of the English, at that time, to subside with respect to the main enterprise, which was the discovery of a north-east passage.

The Dutch began to pursue the same object in 1595, when John Cornelius made the attempt, but without any degree of success.

Cornelius was succeeded in 1606 by William Barens, an experienced navigator and able mathematician, who having proceeded in the course previously pointed out by the English navigators, and passed the Wygate, met with the impediments which had prevented the success of others, and returned home fully convinced that the desired passage was not to be found in that direction. In 1607 he entered upon a second voyage, which he determined to prosecute upon a different plan, by steering to the northward of Nova Zembla; but when he had reached the 77th deg. of north latitude his ship was forced, by the floating ice, upon the rocks, and there crushed to pieces. Barens, and the greatest part of his crew, got safe to land; but there they experienced the most excruciating miseries, by being obliged to winter in a place where the severity of the weather caused the flesh to perish upon the bones of some, and put an end to the existence of others. The survivors, however, with great ingenuity and fortitude, framed a pinnace from the wrecks of the ship; and, at the commencement of the summer, set sail in it for Lapland, but the captain died before their

arrival at Coln in that country, and with him perished the hopes of perfecting the discovery at that time.

In 1710 the celebrated Henry Hudson, who discovered the strait and bay that still bear his name, attempted the north-east passage, but was as unsuccessful as those that had gone before.

Though all these adventurers had miscarried in the main design of their expedition, the discovery of a north-east passage, yet their voyages proved beneficial, in some measure, to their respective countries, by introducing to them the knowledge of seal-fishing, whale-fishing, and other profitable pursuits.

The English re-assumed the design in 1676, when two ships were fitted out by order of Charles II. and at the expence of the king himself, the duke of York his brother, and seven other persons of rank. The command of these ships was given to that excellent navigator and mathematician captain John Wood, and captain Hawes, the former being appointed to act as principal, and direct the expedition in the character of commodore.

They sailed on the 28th of May 1676, and proceeded to the Northern Ocean. On the 15th of the ensuing month they entered the Polar Circle, and on the 29th of the same month the ship named the Speedwell, in which captain Wood sailed, was unfortunately wrecked on some rocks in the icy seas. After having struck, the captain gives the following affecting and animated description of the distresses of himself and his crew. "Here (says he) we lay beating upon a rock, in the most frightful manner, for the space of three or four hours, using all possible means to save the ship, but in vain; for it blew so hard, that it was wholly out of our power to carry out an anchor capable of doing us any service. At length we saw land close under our stern, to the great amazement of us all, as before we could not see it for the foggy weather. I ordered the men to get out the boats before our mast came by the board, which was done. I then sent the boatswain towards the shore, in the pinnace, to see if there was any possibility of landing, which I much feared because the sea ran so high. In half an hour he returned, and gave for answer, that it was impossible to land a man, the snow being in high cliffs, and the shore inaccessible. In consequence of these bad tidings we went to prayers, to beseech the Almighty to have mercy on us, as nothing but inevitable ruin appeared before our eyes. After prayers the weather cleared up a little, and looking over the stern I saw a small beach on the spot where I thought there might be some chance of getting on shore. I therefore sent off the pinnace a second time, with some men in her to be first landed, but she durst not venture to attempt the beach. I then ordered out the long boat, with twenty men in her to land, who attempted it, and got safe on shore. Those in the pinnace seeing that followed, and landing their men likewise, both vessels returned to the ship without any accident.

"The men on shore desired some fire arms and ammunition, for there were many bears in sight. I therefore ordered two barrels of powder, some small arms, provisions, with my own papers and money, to be put on board the pinnace, but as she put off from the ship's side, a sea overset her, so that all was lost, with the life of one man, and several others were taken up for dead. The pinnace was dashed to pieces to our great regret, as by that disaster one means of escaping from this dismal country was cut off. The long-boat being on board, and the sea running high, the boatswain and some others would compel me and the lieutenant to leave the ship, declaring it was impossible for her to live in that sea, and that they had rather be drowned than their commander; but desired me, when I came ashore, if possible, to send the boat again for them. Before we had got half way to the shore the ship over-set, so that making all possible haste to land the men we had on board I went off to the ship again, to save those men who had given me such proofs of their regard.

gard. With great hazard I got to the quarter of the ship, and they came down the ladder into the boat, only one man was left for dead, who had been cast away in the pinnace. I returned, however, to the shore, though very wet and cold. We then hauled up the boat, and went up the land about a musquet shot, where our men were making a fire, and a tent with canvas and oars, which we had saved for that purpose, and in which we lay all night wet and weary. The next morning the man we left on board having recovered got upon the mizen-mast, and entreated to be taken on shore; but it blew so hard, and the sea ran so high, that, though he was an expert seaman, none would venture to bring him off.

"The wind continuing to blow, with extreme fogs, frosts, snow, and all the ill compacted weather that could be imagined, we built more tents to preserve ourselves; and the ship breaking to pieces came all on shore to the same place where we landed, which served us for shelter and firing; besides, there came to us some hogsheads of brandy, and good store of flour, which was great comfort to us in our extremity. We now lay between hope and despair, praying for fair weather, that captain Hawes might find us, which it was impossible for him to do while the weather continued foggy; but fearing at the same time he might share the same fate. At all events I was resolved to try the utmost to save as many as I could in the long-boat. In order thereunto we raised her two feet, and raised a deck upon her, to keep the sea out as much as possible: with this boat and thirty men (for she would carry no more) I intended alternately to row and sail to Russia; but the crew not being satisfied as to the choice of the men, began to be mutinous, every one having as much reason to save himself as another. In this perilous state brandy was our best resource, for it kept the men always intoxicated, and frustrated their designs. Some were resolved to go by land, but that I knew was impossible; neither had we provision or ammunition to defend us from the wild beasts.

"The weather still continued very bad, with fogs, snow, rain and frost, till the ninth day of our being on shore, which was the 8th day of July, when in the morning it cleared up, and, to our great joy, one of our people called out, a sail! This proving to be captain Hawes we set fire to our town, that he might see where we were, which he presently discovering, came up, and sent his boat to us. Before I went off I wrote a brief relation of the design of the voyage, with the accident that had befallen us, put it into a glass bottle and left it in the fortification I had there built. By twelve o'clock we all got safe on board, but left all on shore we had saved from the ship, for we much feared it would prove foggy again, and that we should be once more driven on this miserable country; a country for the most part covered perpetually with snow, and principally boggy land, on whose surface grows a kind of moss bearing a blue and yellow flower, the whole produce of the earth in this desolate region. The ice cliffs, which are exceeding high, and the arches overhanging supporting mountains of snow, exhibit a most tremendous spectacle. Being all on board the *Profperous*, we set sail for England, where we arrived in 45 days."

The expectations of the English government, and the hopes of the British navigators, with respect to the discovery of a north-east passage, subsided with the issue of this unfortunate expedition; and many mariners seriously began to think that no such passage existed; notwithstanding the Dutch, but a few years before this expedition, sailed very near that open sea which the Russians at present navigate with great facility; and might, without the least doubt, have easily reached the coasts of China and Japan, had they persevered in their undertaking.

Soon after these enterprises the astonishing genius of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, not only humanized and polished his subjects, (who before were little

better than barbarians) but impelled them to great and noble undertakings. Hence the Russians, who scarcely had any vessels larger than a small bark, began not only to build ships of considerable burthen, but to attempt new discoveries. These arduous undertakings occasioned the vast and almost desert country of Siberia to be explored, Kamtschatka to be discovered, and the seas on the north of Asia to be traversed. These attempts were begun by Beering, who, on the 5th of February 1725, received orders from count Apraxin, admiral of Russia, to proceed on his passage into Siberia. By his instructions, signed by the Czar, he was to inform himself of the north-eastern frontiers of that country, in order to discover whether they were contiguous to, or what might be their distance from, the continent of North America; and if any passage could be obtained that way by sea. He traversed Siberia, partly by land, and partly in boats by rivers, till he came to Lower Kamtschatka, in the 56th deg. of north lat. and about long. 94. 30. east from London. It stands on a river of the same name, which runs to the east, and about 120 miles from the town falls into the Sleeping Sea, as it is called in the map annexed to Beering's voyage. Beering sailed from the river Kamtschatka the 14th of July 1728, and the 8th of August found the latitude to be 64 deg. 30 min. On the 15th the lat. was 67. 18. and he thought proper not to proceed, as he could not observe that the land reached farther northward, and was apprehensive lest some contrary winds might prevent his return to Kamtschatka before the end of summer.

There was a ridge of mountains covered with snow all along the shore, from Kamtschatka to this place, which appeared at sea like a wall. In September Beering returned to the river of Kamtschatka, and wintered in Lower Kamtschatka. On the 5th of June 1729 he sailed again from that river, and steered eastwards, being informed that land might that way be discerned at sea in clear weather. But having made 200 werstes, or 144 English miles, and no land appearing, he changed his course along the coast of Shatzick, to double the point of the continent of Kamtschatka, which was before unknown. That point lies in lat. 51. and about long. 90. 10. east from London. About 80 miles to the north of it is the mouth of Bolskhaya, from whence Beering crossed the sea to Okotski, in lat. 58. 30. and long. 78. and thence he returned by land to Siberia, and so to Petersburg, where he arrived in March 1730. In the account of this voyage he gives a short description of those parts of Siberia and Samoieda through which he travelled. In this voyage, however, he made no considerable discoveries; and, on a second voyage, he unfortunately perished in the attempt.

With respect to Beering's second voyage, we know little more than that he began it about the year 1740, penetrated as far as the Isle of Japan, and then sailed eastward about 80 leagues, after which he was shipwrecked on an island before unknown, where he and most of his company perished through cold, hunger and fatigue. The news was brought by Mr. Stoller, a botanist, and of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg, who accompanied Beering. Mr. Stoller, with the assistance of some of his companions, found means to build, out of the ruins of their great ship, a small bark, in which himself, and nineteen others, after a thousand perilous adventures, arrived at Kamtschatka. The same gentleman reports, that Tschershow, who accompanied Beering in that expedition, had been more fortunate, and even discovered the coast of America, but his men were beaten off by the savages.

From the second enterprize, however, and from some subsequent voyages of the Russians, the reality of a north-east passage is ascertained. This is effected by summing up the courses run by the English and Dutch, by some Russians who sailed since Beering, and by Beering in his last voyage, the whole amounting to an absolute passage from Europe by the north-east to Japan

Japan and China; for the English and Dutch have repeatedly failed to Wygatz, or the Straits of Nova Zembla; the Russians have failed from thence to the North Cape of Asia; and Beering failed from the said North Cape to the Isles of Japan. Hence the voyage has been completely performed, though not throughout by the same persons. These incontestible proofs, and the voyage of Commodore Phipps, (now Lord Mulgrave,) clearly evince that, although a north-east passage really exists, yet it is useless with respect to commercial purposes. For though the passage from Europe to China, or Japan, is much shorter this way than by the usual track, yet, from the innumerable impediments, three years would be required to make the voyage, which has hitherto been performed, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, in less than one. For the gratification of our readers, we shall present a concise and succinct account of Commodore Phipps's voyage, as it is equally important and entertaining.

This great point of geography having remained without further investigation till the year 1773, the Earl of Sandwich, then first lord commissioner of the admiralty, in consequence of an application made to him by the Royal Society, for an expedition to be undertaken, in order to ascertain how far navigation was practicable towards the north pole, communicated the same to his Majesty, who was graciously pleased to countenance the proposal, and order the expedition to be undertaken with every assistance and encouragement that could give it success. Every necessary was, therefore, amply provided, which could promote the design of the enterprise, or tend to convenience or comfort to those that were engaged in it. The vessels chosen for the expedition were two bomb-ketches, which, of all others, are the best adapted for such voyages, as they are uncommonly stout, and not over large. These vessels, whose names were the *Racehorse* and *Carcase*, to increase their natural strength, had a sheathing of seasoned oak plank, three inches thick, and were furnished with a double set of anchors, cables, sails, rigging, ice-poles, &c.

For the comfort and convenience of the officers and men, a great quantity of prime beef and pork was ordered to be cured in the best manner. An hundred butts of porter were ordered to be double brewed from the best hops and malt; plenty of coals to be stowed in the ships for firing; peas, oatmeal, rice, molasses, spirituous liquors, wine, vinegar, oil, mustard, portable soup, tea, sugar, &c. &c. in great abundance: and that warm cloathing might not be wanting, besides what was usual, every man was provided with jackets made of that warm stuff called fearnought, two milled caps, two pair of fearnought trowsers, four pair of milled stockings, an excellent pair of boots, two cotton shirts, two handkerchiefs, and a dozen pair of milled mits.

The necessary preparations being completed, the Honourable Constantine John Phipps (now Lord Mulgrave,) as commodore, went on board the *Racehorse*, of 350 tons burthen, mounted with 8 six-pounders and 14 swivels: and Captain Skiffington Lutwidge went on board the *Carcase*, of 300 tons burthen, mounting 4 six-pounders and 14 swivels; when the wind being fair, they set sail on the 3d of June, 1773.

On the 21st of the same month they saw a whale, which was the first they had yet seen in the North Seas. The same day they met with a homeward bound *Hamburgh* whaling snow, when Mr. Wyndham, a gentleman of fortune, who had designed to prosecute the voyage with the Commodore, not being pleased with the heavy seas and foul weather, which he had already seen, and finding his health decline, went on board the *Hamburgh* man, in order to return home. On the 29th they met with a *Greenland* fishing-vessel, called the *Marquis of Rockingham*, from the captain of which they learned that, the day before, three whalers had been crushed to pieces by the ice.

Nothing particular happened till the 8th of July, when both ships were in great danger from being almost

surrounded suddenly by ice. The Commodore gave orders to stand to the southward; but this being soon found impossible, by the continual accumulation of the ice, the companies of both ships were obliged to have recourse to their ice-anchors and ice-poles, in order, if possible, to extricate themselves from the imminent danger with which they were nearly enveloped; but this they found impossible till the evening, when the ice beginning to open, they hoisted out their long-boats, and towed the ships round a prodigious large cape of ice, in doing which, both vessels, however, received some damage.

On the 9th of July they lost sight of each other, but joined company the next day, when the weather being intensely cold, it was agreed by the officers, that every man should be allowed daily two quarts of porter, and a pint of brandy.

They now sailed through vast mountains of floating ice, and were continually in imminent danger of being crushed to pieces. At the same time it was generally agreed among the officers, that no discovery could be made towards the north pole in that direction: they therefore changed their course, and, on the 11th of July, having worked themselves out of the moving mountains of ice, they began to coast a vast icy continent, if we may be allowed the expression. This prodigious mass of ice extended towards the north-east, to an immense distance; and they had a tolerable clear sea till the 13th, when they came to anchor in *Smearingburgh* Harbour in *Greenland* or *Spitzbergen*.

Spitzbergen lies in latitude 77 deg. 59 min. 11 sec. longitude 9 deg. 13 min. east. The coast appeared to be neither habitable or accessible. It is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the least marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed, in other parts covered with snow, appearing even above the clouds. The vallies between the high cliffs were filled with snow or ice. "This prospect (says Captain Phipps) would have suggested the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildness of the weather, the smooth water, bright sun-shine, and constant day-light, given a cheerfulness and novelty to the whole of this striking and romantic scene." The current ran along this coast half a knot an hour north. The height of one mountain seen here was found to be 1503 yards. The harbour of *Smearingburgh* has good anchorage in 13 fathoms. Close to this harbour is an island called *Amsterdam* Island, where the Dutch used formerly to boil their whale oil; and the remains of some conveniency, erected by them for that purpose, are still visible. Once they attempted to make an establishment here, and left some people to winter, who all perished. The Dutch ships still resort to this place for the latter season of the whale fishery. It lies in 79 deg. 44 min. north, and 9 deg. 50 min. 45 sec. east.

The most remarkable views which these dreary regions present are what are called icebergs. These are large bodies of ice, filling the vallies between the high mountains. Their face towards the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light-green colour. One was about 300 feet high, with a cascade of water issuing out of it. The black mountains on each side, the white snow, and green-coloured ice, composed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noise into the water. One piece was observed to have floated out into the bay, and grounded in 24 fathoms: it was 50 feet high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour as the iceberg from which it had been separated.

The stone seen about *Smearingburgh* is chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolved easily in the marine acid. There were no appearances of minerals of any kind, or any signs of ancient or modern volcanos. No insects, or any species of reptiles, were seen, not even the common earth-worm. There were no springs or rivers, but great plenty of water was produced from the snow which melted from the mountains. Captain Phipps has been

been very accurate in his description of the few animals which these inhospitable regions cherish. Here is the sea-horse, or morse, (the *Trichechus Rosmarus* of Linnæus.) It is found every where about the coast of Spitzbergen, as well as generally wherever there is ice, though at a distance from the land. It is a gregarious animal, not inclined to attack, but dangerous if attacked, as the whole herd will join their forces to revenge any injury received by an individual. One of these animals being fired at and wounded by some people in a boat, dived immediately, and brought up with it a number of others, who made a joint attack upon the boat, and wrested an oar from one of the men, and had well nigh staved or overset her; but another boat coming up they dispersed.

The arctic fox (*Canis Lagopus* of Linnæus,) found on the main land of Spitzbergen, and the islands adjacent, differs from our fox, not only in colour, but in having its ears much more rounded. It smells very little, and its flesh is good food. The polar bear (*Ursus Maritimus* of Linnæus) is found in great numbers on the main land of Spitzbergen, also on the islands and ice-fields adjacent. This animal is much larger than the black bear. The seamen eat of their flesh, though very coarse. The rein-deer (*Cervus Tarandus* of Linnæus) furnishes excellent venison.

The coast abounds with the whale, fin-fish, eider-duck, puffin, fulmar, northern diver, the sea-snail, and coral-fish; as also the prawn, found in the stomach of a seal caught near the coast of Spitzbergen. There are three singular species of crab, which have not been before described, two of them found in the stomach of a seal. A small worm, found adhering by its snout to the inside of the intestines of an eider-duck. The sea May-fly, and snail slime-fish, found in innumerable quantities about the Arctic Seas, peopling, as it were, this almost uninhabited ocean.

On the 27th of July they found themselves enveloped by immense shoals and mountains of ice; and on taking a view from the mast-head, they discovered a vast icy continent, and seven small islands, being then in 80deg. 47 min. north lat. and 21 deg. 10 min. east long. "Here (says the journal) the whole prospect was more pleasing and picturesque than any they had yet beheld in this remote region. They very ice in which they were beset looked beautiful, and put forth a thousand glittering forms; and the tops of the mountains, which they could see like sparkling gems at a vast distance, had the appearance of so many silver stars illuminating a new firmament. On the ice were many bears, some of which came so near the ships as to be shot dead with small arms. These bears are very good eating, and, where no better is to be got, the whalers account them as good as beef. They are many of them as large as the largest oxen, and weigh heavier. In many parts of their body they are musket proof; and unless they are hit on the open chest, or on the flank, a blow with a musket ball will hardly make them turn their backs. Some of the bears killed in the encounters weighed from seven to eight hundred weight."

In these seas they found the water less salt than they had ever before experienced sea-water to be; and when they melted the ice it produced excellent fresh water. They likewise filled their water-casks by this method. In places where the snow lay thick upon the surface of the ice, they dug pits, which immediately filled with clear, soft, sweet water.

On the 1st of August, the Commodore being desirous of surveying the westernmost of the islands before mentioned, ordered the ships to be made fast to the main body of ice with ice-anchors; a method frequently practised by the Greenland fishing-vessels. This being effected, a party set forward upon the excursion, consisting of the principal officers and gentlemen, the pilots, and some prime sailors selected from both ships. They continued their progress, sometimes rowing the boat, and sometimes drawing it over the ice, and at length, with some difficulty, reached land,

where they found a fine herd of deer, so tame, that their approach did not in the least intimidate them: "A proof (says the journalist) that animals are not naturally afraid of man; till, by the fate of their associates, they are taught the danger of approaching them: a proof, too, that animals are not destitute of reflection; otherwise how should they conclude that what has befallen their fellow animals will certainly happen to them, if they run the like risk?" They ascended the highest hill, but were disappointed in the prospect they expected by the haziness of the weather. On returning to the ships, they found, to their great surprize, that, by grappling to the ice, they were in the most imminent danger of losing them both; for the loose ice had closed so fast round them, that it was deemed impracticable to disengage them, and they had great reason to fear that both the ships would be crushed to pieces. To prevent, if possible, so dreadful an accident, the Commodore prudently ordered a great number of men to form a dock in the solid ice, sufficiently large to moor both ships; and by the performance of this arduous undertaking with amazing alacrity and expedition, both vessels and crews were almost miraculously preserved. No sooner were the ships thus secured, than a general council was summoned of all the officers, pilots, and masters of both ships, to consult what steps were to be taken in this emergency; the result of which was, that they must either winter upon the neighbouring islands, or drag their boats over the ice, and launch them in the open sea, which was now, by the continual accumulation of the ice, at a very considerable distance. A desperate attempt was first made to extricate the ships, by cutting open a channel to the sea towards the westward; but that was soon given up as a chimerical and impracticable attempt.

On the 3d of August it was unanimously determined to drag the long-boats belonging to both the ships over the ice, and then attempt to launch them into the open sea, when they hoped in them they might reach Spitzbergen before the whaling ships were all departed. While the boats were getting ready they killed several bears, who, being attracted by the smell of the food dressed on board the ships, came over the ice to visit them. They likewise killed a sea-horse, in the desperate engagement with which, the second lieutenant of the Carcase was in imminent danger of losing his life. The following circumstance, which happened while the ships remained in the ice, is singularly remarkable.

"Early in the morning of the 5th of August, the man at the mast-head of the Carcase gave notice, that three bears were making their way very fast over the ice, and that they were directing their course towards the ship. They had, without doubt, been invited by the scent of the blubber of the sea-horse killed a few days before, which the men had set on fire, and which was burning on the ice at the time of their approach. They proved to be a she bear and her two cubs; but the cubs were nearly as large as the dam. They ran eagerly to the fire, and drew out from the flames part of the flesh of the sea-horse that remained unconsumed, and eat it voraciously. The crew from the ship, by way of diversion, threw great lumps of the flesh of the sea-horse, which they had still left, out upon the ice, which the old bear fetched away singly, laid each lump before her cubs as she brought it, and, dividing it, gave each a share, reserving but a small portion to herself. As she was fetching away the last piece they had to bestow, they levelled their muskets at the cubs, and shot them both dead; and, in her retreat, they wounded the dam, but not mortally. It would have drawn tears of pity from any but unfeeling minds, to have marked the affectionate concern expressed by this poor beast in the dying moments of her expiring young. Though she was sorely wounded, and could but just crawl to the place where they lay, she carried the lump of flesh she had fetched away as she had done the others before, tore it in pieces, and laid it down before them; and when she saw that they refused to eat, she laid her paws first upon

upon one, and then upon the other, and endeavoured to raise them up. All this while it was pitiful to hear her moan. When she found she could not stir them she went off, and, when she had got at some distance, looked back and moaned; and that not availing her to entice them away, she returned, and smelling round them, began to lick their wounds. She went off a second time, as before, and, having crawled a few paces, looked again behind her, and, for some time, stood moaning; but still, her cubs not rising to follow her, she returned to them again, and, with signs of inexpressible fondness, went round one, and round the other, pawing them, and moaning. Finding, at last, that they were cold and lifeless, she raised her head towards the ship, and, like Caliban in the *Tempest*, growled a curse upon the murderers; which they returned by a volley of musket-balls, when she fell between her cubs, and died licking their wounds."

On the 7th of August, the boats being ready, and properly fitted with weather-cloths to keep off the cold, if they should be so fortunate as to launch them, every man was furnished with a bag, containing bread for 25 days, and what necessaries he chose to take; the other requisite provisions, liquors, utensils, &c. being stowed in the boats. Having made these preparations, a detachment of 50 men, under their respective commanders, was ordered from each ship, to begin the arduous and difficult undertaking of dragging the boats thus laden over the ice. The Commodore took upon himself the direction of these two parties, and left Capt. Lutwidge to take care of the ships, with the remaining part of their crews.

Previous to their setting out, a strict order had been given, that no man whatever should encumber himself with more cloaths than what he wore upon his back; which prohibition occasioned the following whimsical circumstances: The officers, in order to provide themselves with habits suitable to the extremity of cold which they might probably experience, had thrown off their own cloaths, and put on warm flannel garments. The men observing this, and thinking it a great pity that such good laced cloaths should be lost, rejected their own, and put on the cloaths of the officers, that they might at least be fine in the midst of their difficulties. Hence the two bands, when properly harnessed to draw the boats, made a most motly and whimsical appearance. Nor were they in the least afflicted: they had the ship's music to play before them. Not a gloomy countenance was to be seen; but, instead of appearing terrified at the dangers that surrounded them, they, to a man, were as jovial and merry as if they had been in perfect safety, and drinking with each other in Old England.

After exerting the greatest industry, and labouring with astonishing assiduity, they had proceeded but one mile at the expiration of six hours, which was the time the Commodore had ordered the dinner for himself and the officers to be brought after them. The head cook having dressed it, set out with his mates to bring the different dishes, under covers, towards the boats; but having unluckily swallowed too much brandy, in order to fortify themselves against the cold, (which they imagined would assail them with double rigour after just coming from the fire side,) they could not conveniently steer straight, but were sometimes very near boarding each other. Having proceeded about half way, they came to a chasm, or parting of the ice, which they were obliged to leap. The mates vaulted over pretty well, and balanced themselves tolerably, considering their drunken condition; but, after making the best effort he was able, down came the head cook; when dish, cover, meat, and the Commodore's service of plate, fell through the aperture into the sea, and disappeared in a twinkling. This accident, in some measure, soberized the poor cook, who, after scratching his head, very significantly said, "Rat it, now I am quite puzzled to know whether I had best jump into the sea after the plate, or go and let the Commodore

know what a confounded accident I have met with." After mature deliberation upon this weighty matter, it was at length agreed, that the Cook should throw himself upon the Commodore's mercy, and trust to his good-nature. "For (observed one of the mates) his honour is a kind-hearted gemman, and will never take away a man's life for a slip upon the ice: besides, it was a great jump for a fat man; and Commodore would rather lose all the plate in the great cabin than lose cook." This curious mode of reasoning, in some measure, comforted the cook. He did not, however, choose to go to the Commodore, till he had dispatched the mates first to carry the remainder of the provisions, and to inform that gentleman of the disaster which had befallen him. When the Commodore had heard the tale, he asked where the cook was? "He's blubbering and crying behind, an please your honour," says one of them. When the cook came up, "Cook, (said the Commodore,) bring me your dinner. I will dine to-day with my comrades." "My dinner! (said the cook :) A pound of the flesh next my heart, if your honour likes it." This reply, uttered with the voice of sincerity, pleased the Commodore more than the most sumptuous entertainment would have done.

Soon after dinner word was brought that the whole mass of ice had changed its situation, and was parting, and that the ships were afloat. The men were instantly ordered to the ships to assist in working them. This joy was, however, short-lived; for the ice re-assumed its former situation; and, what was worse, the ships, from having been set afloat, were in more danger of being crushed to pieces than before. The crews of both ships now thought their condition more desperate than ever. None could go back to the boats, as it was necessary that all hands should be employed in defending the ships from immediate destruction with their ice-poles. But when all were exhausted with fatigue, and very little hope seemed to remain, Providence, on a sudden relieved them. A brisk wind sprung up, and the ice suddenly separated and broke asunder, with a noise which exceeded the loudest clap of thunder. Some fragments formed themselves, almost instantaneously, into huge mountains; and others coalesced into plains; while various channels opened between the disuniting parts of the late tremendous barrier of congealed waters. Every countenance cleared up, all hearts revived, and the sails were spread with alacrity. A party was dispatched to regain the boats, which the men effected with great difficulty. "And now (says the author of the journal) they had time to admire the ice which had parted from the main body, as it no longer obstructed their course. The various shapes in which the broken fragments appeared, were, indeed, very curious and amusing. One remarkable piece described a magnificent arch, so large and completely formed, that a sloop of considerable burthen might have sailed through it without lowering her mast. Another represented a church, with windows, pillars, and domes; and a third a table, with iceicles hanging round it like the fringes of a damask table-cloth. A fertile imagination might here find entertainment enough; for, as has already been observed, the similitude of what art or nature has ever yet produced, might here be fancied."

Both ships now determined to steer immediately for England, and nothing worth recording happened till the 11th of September, when the ships parted in a strong gale of wind, and did not come into company again till the 26th of the same month, when they met off Harwich; and four days after came to an anchor at Deptford.

The following are some of the most curious observations made on the voyage.

On the 19th of June, by a meridian observation at midnight, the sun's lower limb 0 deg. 37 min. 30 sec. above the horizon, lat. 66 deg. 54 min. 39 sec. north, long. 0 deg. 58 min. 45 sec. west. In lat. 67 deg. 35 min. Captain Phipps sounded with a very heavy lead the depth of 780 fathoms without getting ground; and by

by a thermometer invented by lord Charles Cavendish for the purpose, found the temperature of the water at that depth to be 26 deg. of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the temperature of the air being 48 deg. and a half. June 24, in lat. 73 deg. 40 min. a fire was made in the cabin for the first time. On the first of July it was found so warm, that they sat without a fire in lat. 78 deg. 13 min. 36 sec. In 78 deg. 0 min. 50 sec. at four in the morning, lord Charles Cavendish's thermometer was 31, that of the air 40 and a half. At two in the afternoon at 115 fathoms the water was 33 deg. and three quarters. July 16th the greatest height of the thermometer was 58 deg. and a half at eleven in the forenoon, and at midnight 57 deg. in lat. 79 deg. 50 min. long. 10 deg. 2 min. 30 sec. east. On the 19th of August, at eleven at night, an appearance of dusk was observed at Smeerenberg. On the 24th of September stars became visible. The sight of a star (says captain Phipps) was now become almost as great a phenomenon as the sun at midnight had been two months before, when we first got within the Arctic circle. The sky was in general loaded with hard white clouds, insomuch that the sun and horizon were never entirely clear of them, even in the clearest weather. The first Venetians who explored the northern extremity of the European continent were struck with the greatest astonishment at the continual appearance of the sun above the horizon, and relate that they could only distinguish day from night by the instinct of the sea-fowl, which went to roost on shore for the space of four hours. Pietro Quirino sailed in April 1431, and in January 1432 he was shipwrecked under the polar circle. A bright appearance near the horizon was always the herald to signify the approach of ice; and this the pilots called the blink of the ice. And the same appearance was seen on Captain Cook's voyage towards the south pole in 1773 and 1774. Dr. Irving tried the specific gravity of ice on board the Race-horse. A piece of the most dense cold ice he could find being immersed in snow water, thermometer 34 deg. 14 fifteenth parts sunk under the surface of the water. In brandy, just proof, it barely floated: in rectified spirits of wine it fell to the bottom at once, and dissolved immediately.

Particulars relative to East Greenland, or Spitzbergen, and the Country adjacent. Climate, Vegetable, Animal and Mineral Productions.

THIS country was called Greenland by Sir Hugh Willoughby, who discovered it in 1553. It afterwards derived from the Dutch the appellation of Spitzbergen, which signifies *sharp mountains*. The whole of its boundaries are not known. However, on the west it has the northern ocean; on the south the same ocean between it and the Russian Lapland, and the northernmost part of Norway, over-against which it lies; on the east it has an undiscovered country, to which it is joined by an isthmus. On the west side of Spitzbergen lies Charles Island, which is divided from the main land by a narrow strait called Foreland-Ford; between which, and Muscle-Haven, are the highest mountains, most of which are of a red colour, and reflect the sun's beams so as to seem all on fire: but seven of the mountains, all of remarkable sharpness, are of a fine sky-blue. South-Haven is the most commodious place on the island, affording all the conveniences necessary for repairing leaky or damaged ships; and is so large that 30 or 40 sail may ride at anchor there very conveniently: here also may be had fresh water, from the melting of the snow; for as to the rivers they are brackish, as far as hitherto they have been discovered; and no springs or wells have yet been found. The mountains about South-Haven are very high, especially on the left; and in the midst of the harbour is an island called Dead-man's Island, because such as die in the voyage are usually buried there.

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The next capacious haven is that called by the Dutch Maurice Bay, where some of them have wintered: near this place are a few cottages, built by the Dutch for the convenience of making their oil; and this place they call Smearburg, or Smearingburg, or the Haerlem Cookery. In the north bay there is an island called Vogel-Sang by the Dutch, (i. e. Bird-Song) from the great noise which the fowls make when they take their flight. Deer Sound is so called from the abundance of Deer which feed about it, though the soil seems to be all flats set edge-ways. Muscle-Haven lies at the mouth of the Waygate, to the north of which, Martens says, he sailed to 81 degrees, and saw seven islands, but could not approach them because of the ice; the lowest part of that country lies about this harbour. The Waygate mentioned here must not be mistaken for the famous strait of that name, which lies between Nova Zembla and the main land of Samoieda. Waygate here meant is a harbour, of which the Dutch voyagers say they do not know whether it goes through the country. They call it by this name because of the winds which frequently blow there; and about this place, they say, the country is low, and adorned with small hills. Roefield Harbour is so called because it abounds with deer. Alderman Freeman's Inlet (called by the Dutch Walter Thymen's Fort) is the large mouth of a river, which is not yet discovered. The voyagers mention also the English, Danish, Hamburg, and Magdalen Havens; with one called the Bay of Love, but not so distinctly as to enable us to judge whether they are different from those already mentioned, with Dutch or English names. Bell-Harbour, on the western coast of this country, is the place where, in the year 1630, eight English sailors wintered, and suffered very great hardships during nine months and twelve days, the singular circumstances of which will be hereafter related.

These particulars are confirmed by the concurrent testimonies of most voyagers, previous to the expedition under commodore Phipps. The account given by the writer of that voyage corroborates what they have said, and adds some new particulars which we shall transcribe. "This country (says the journalist) is stony, and, as far as can be seen, full of mountains, precipices and rocks. Between these are hills of ice, generated, as it appears, by torrents that flow from the melting of the snow on the sides of those towering elevations, which being once congealed are continually increased by the snow in winter, and the rain in summer, which often freezes as soon as it falls. By looking on these hills a stranger may fancy a thousand different shapes of trees, castles, churches, ruins, ships, whales, monsters, and all the various forms that fill the universe. Of the ice hills there are seven that more particularly attract the notice of strangers. These are known by the name of the Seven Icebergs, and are thought to be the highest of the kind in that country. When the air is clear, and the sun shines full upon these mountains, the prospect is inconceivably brilliant. They sometimes put on the bright glow of the evening rays of the setting sun when reflected upon glass at its going down: sometimes they appear of a bright blue like sapphire, and sometimes like the variable colours of a prism, exceeding in lustre the richest gems in the world, disposed in shapes wonderful to behold, all glittering with a lustre that dazzles the eye, and fills the air with astonishing brightness."

When every object is new, it is not easy for a stranger to fix on which first to admire. The rocks are striking objects: before a storm they exhibit a fiery appearance, and the sun looks pale upon them, the snow giving the air a bright reflection. Their summits are almost always involved in clouds, so that it is but just possible to see the tops of them. Some of these rocks are but one stone from top to bottom, appearing like an old decayed ruin. Others consist of huge masses, veined differently like marble, with red, white and yellow, and, probably, were they to be sawed and polished,

ed, would equal, if not excel, the finest Egyptian marble we now so much admire. Perhaps the distance and danger of carrying large blocks of stone may be the reason that no trials have been made to manufacture them. On the southerly and westerly sides of these rocks grow all the plants, herbs and mosses peculiar to this country. On the northerly and easterly sides the wind strikes so cold when it blows from these quarters that it perishes every kind of vegetable. These plants grow to perfection in a very short time. Till the middle of May the whole country is locked up in ice; in the beginning of July the plants are in flower, and about the latter end of the same month, or the beginning of August, they have perfected their seed. The earth owes its fertility, in a great measure, to the dung of birds, who build and breed their young here in the summer, and in the winter retire to more favourable climates.

The rocks and precipices are full of fissures and clefts, which afford convenient harbour for birds to lay their eggs, and breed their young in safety. Most of these birds are water-fowls, and seek their food in the sea: some, indeed, are birds of prey, and pursue and kill others for their own sustenance, but these are rare; the water-fowl eat strong and fishy, and their fat is not to be endured. They are so numerous about the rocks as sometimes to darken the air when they rise in flocks; and they shriek so horridly that the rocks echo with their noise.

The air about Spitzbergen is at no time free from icicles: if you look through the sun-beams transversely as you sit in the shade, or where you see the rays confined in a body, instead of dark motes as are seen here, you behold myriads of shining particles that spangle like diamonds; and when the sun shines hot, as it sometimes does so as to melt the tar in the seams of ships, when they lie sheltered from the wind, these shining atoms appear to melt away, and descend like dew.

It is seldom that the air continues clear for many days together in this climate, but when that happens the whalers are generally successful. There is no difference between night and day in the appearance of the atmosphere about Spitzbergen, one being as light as the other; only when the sun is to the northward you may look at him with the naked eye, as at the moon, without dazzling. The fogs here come on so suddenly that from bright sun-shine you are presently enveloped in such obscurity, that you can hardly see from one end of the ship to the other.

The cold here is generally very intense, but in the extremity of winter it is intolerable, particularly when the wind blows from the north or the east. The air is tolerably calm during the months of June, July, and August; not but the wind sometimes blows incredibly cold even at this season, and the frost continues without intermission. The sea-water here is less salt than in southerly climates, and changes its colour with the sky, that is, in a clear air it appears blue, when the atmosphere is overcast with clouds it seems green, during fog it is yellow, and quite black in stormy weather.

The sun usually appears in this country about the beginning of February, and disappears about the first of October. From May to August he continues above the horizon without setting, and then the night and day are distinguishable only by his appearing either in the eastern or western parts of the heavens. The face of this country exhibits scarce any thing but rugged rocks and barren mountains that rise into the clouds, or vallies choaked up with stones and ice that fall from those mountains. About Deer Sained and Muscle Haven are some detached pieces of low lands, which are usually covered with snow; but in a fine summer, when that dissolves, a coat of heath and moss is seen interspersed with a few plants. No springs have been found here, and the rivers are all brackish; but these inconveniences are recompensed by the great plenty of snow-water, which is at once healthful and pleasant.

The vegetables of Spitzbergen are, excellent scurvy-grass, sorrel, wild lettuce, snake-root, ground-ivy, hearts-ease, limeworth, sea-bugloss, wild strawberries, wall-pepper, and houseleek. "These (says a learned author) are considered as effectual remedies supplied by the hand of Providence for the cure of the scurvy, and other diseases incident to those who yearly visit this inhospitable country. The scurvy-grass here, as in many other northern climates, has no pungency to the taste, but is mild, grateful to the palate, and such an excellent anti-scorbutic, that the seamen term it the "Gift of God." Although the ships employed in the whale-fishery are, of all others, the best supplied with good provisions, and plenty of fresh water, yet the mariners are in these northern latitudes much more subject to the sea-scurvy than in any southern voyage. The attack of the malady is here more sudden, and the progress of it more rapid. The patient feels its symptoms increase as he advances nearer the pole; nor does he enjoy the least alleviation until the weather softens in the month of July, which is very moderate, and, indeed, the only interruption of winter. Then the scurvy-grass appears in plenty as an infallible cure, and performs wonders, restoring, in a few days, to health and vigour, those who were seemingly in the last stage of the distemper.

The other vegetable productions of this country are, poppies, helebore, dandelion, mountain-heath, saxifrage, dwarf-willow, &c. but all are small and stunted in their growth, the natural consequence of a scanty soil and inclement sky.

There is an aquatic vegetable peculiar to this country called the rock plant; the leaves are shaped like a man's tongue, about six feet long, of a dull yellow colour, the stalk is round and smooth, and of the same colour with the leaf, it rises tapering, and smells like muscels. It grows in the water, and rises in height in proportion to the depth of water in which it is found.

In the year 1737 a Greenland captain brought to England several pieces of gold, which he found accidentally in a hunting excursion among the rocks of Spitzbergen. This discovery, however, was not prosecuted. Alabaster, Selenites, and Lapis Spicularis are found here; and naturalists conjecture that the country abounds in iron ore.

Few land-birds are seen in this country, except partridges, a few birds of the snipe kind, some small birds that, even in this dreary climate, sometimes warble sweetly, the snow-bird and the ice-bird; the latter is a small but very beautiful bird; in size and shape it resembles the turtle-dove, but the plumage, when the sun shines upon it, is of a bright yellow, like the golden ring in the peacock's tail, and almost dazzles the eye to look upon it.

The Greenland fox differs but little in shape from those we are acquainted with; but in colour there is no similitude, for the body is white and the head is black. Foxes are seen here in great plenty; they are exceeding swift, and very subtle; so that it is a difficult matter to catch them. The author of commodore Phipps's voyage says, "The Dutch seamen report, that when they (the foxes) are hungry, they will feign themselves dead, and when the ravenous birds come to feed on them, they rise and make them their prey."

The deer of this country are large, grey and shaggy, with branching horns, short tails and long ears. Their flesh is of an admirable flavour; and, in the summer season, they are exceeding fat, which is owing to their feeding on the yellow moss: this natural store of fat enables them to subsist during the winter; many of them are, however, starved to death; and all in general appear very thin and meagre in the spring. On this occasion a learned gentleman says, "In all probability these animals sleep in caverns during winter like the bears in Norway. Perhaps the abundance of poppies in this country may dispose them to a lethargy, which seems necessary for their preservation, as little or no nourishment is required for animals that have no exercise, and languor



A View of the WHALE-FISHERY, and the manner of KILLING-BEARS near on the Coast of Greenland.

languid circulation." These deer fly at the sight of a human creature, but immediately stop when their pursuers stop, and thus are shot with facility.

The bears here have long snouts, and bark in a husky manner, like dogs that are hoarse. They are large, white, lean, swift, and fierce. Some have been found that were six feet high, and four long, which yielded an hundred weight of fat. The largest kind are termed water bears, because they are fond of subsisting chiefly on the productions of the sea, and have been seen near twenty miles from the shore. When a bear is attacked he makes a dreadful roaring, and his companions, who are within hearing, immediately run to his assistance. A she-bear will suffer herself to be killed rather than abandon her cubs; notwithstanding which attachment, when a bear is found dead, his fellows will eat him without the least scruple. These creatures are so stimulated by hunger, that they will frequently venture to attack whole armed crews; and have been known to take the water, and attempt to board large vessels. They are so tenacious of life, that they sometimes escape with many shots in their bodies. They are attacked with muskets and lances; and, when at bay, rise on their hind legs, and frequently break the lances of the assailants; so that they are not assaulted without imminent danger. They take to the water naturally, and sometimes, when attacked in that element, dive like an otter.

Here are innumerable swarms of water-fowl, such as are common to all the northern countries of Europe; and seals, sea-horses, whales, &c.

Description of the different Species of those enormous Marine Monsters called Whales, with the mode of the Whale Fishery.

THE true large Greenland, or whalebone whale, differs from the rest of the fish so called, by his having no teeth; instead of which, on each side of the upper jaw grows the whalebone, in four or five hundred different blades, at equal distances, some exceeding twelve feet in length, and a foot broad at bottom, growing narrow upwards, like the sticks of a fan inverted, the largest of them weighing about twenty pounds. He contracts and dilates the distances of those blades at the shutting and opening his mouth, making them serve as strainers, to separate the water from the shrimps, prawns, and such small fish as his food consists of; and, for the same purpose, on the inside of the bone, next to the tongue, grows a quantity of hair, to make a still finer percolation, or straining; which is the more necessary, because, notwithstanding the bulk of a whale's body, the throat in general is not much above a foot wide. The head makes near a third part of the whole body, with very small eyes in the midst of it, considering the size of the creature; and the eye-lids are fringed with hair, like those of a man. Instead of the ears, appear, on the outside, only two holes, so small, that they can hardly be found out, and will scarce admit of a single straw: but within the head they have large orifices, which are formed like ears, and afford them a sharp hearing. On the top of the head he has two pipes, for the drawing in and out of the air, and discharging the water which he swallows in his mouth, and which is forced out through these holes in a vast quantity, and to a great height. The tongue is very large; in some whales of the size of an ordinary wool-pack, and will yield astonishing quantities of oil. His bones are hard, like those of four-footed beasts; but, instead of having one large cavity in the middle, are porous, and full of marrow. His belly and back are quite red. His flesh is coarse and hard, like that of a bull, mixed with many sinews, and is very dry and lean, because the fat lies between the flesh and the skin. The fat is mixed with sinews, which holds the oil as a sponge does water. The other strong sinews are about the tail, with which he turns and winds himself as a ship is guided by a rudder. He swims with great celerity,

and makes a track in the sea like a large ship under sail. Besides the uppermost thin skin, there is another almost an inch thick; but neither of them are very strong, which is believed to be the reason why the whale does not exert that great force that might be expected from a fish of its size. They are mightily tormented with lice, which makes them sometimes spring out of the sea in an agony. It is also believed that they feel great pains in their bodies before a storm, which makes them twist and tumble violently, while the wind blows from the east. They are, however, harmless, unless provoked, and rather of a very timorous nature; tho' some of them will now and then approach very close to a ship. The middling sized ones are from fifty to sixty feet long, and yield from seven to an hundred barrels of blubber; though sometimes they are much larger. A voyager mentions one that yielded an hundred and thirty hogheads. This blubber lies immediately under the skin, and is very valuable.

One of the authors of this work, to afford scope for a more minute description of this wonderful part of the creation, took an opportunity of surveying the skeleton of a Sperma-Ceti whale, in the repository of an eminent virtuoso in London. This astonishing production of nature measures seventy-two feet in length, and between seven and eight feet in breadth. The skull alone measures fifteen feet in length, and is supposed to weigh three tons. This great weight of bone is probably buoyed up in the sea by a vast quantity of fat or oil, contained in the cellular membrane, between the skin of the head and the upper surface of the skull. From this oil, and also from that which surrounds the body, the substance called Sperma-Ceti is extracted. That species of whale called the Sperma-Ceti whale, differs from the whalebone whale, which, as before observed, has no teeth; whereas the former has one row of sharp-pointed teeth along each side of the lower jaw, but none in the upper. With these, it is probable, he can devour fish of a considerable size. The Sperma-Ceti whale has also a blowing-hole, but more particularly for the purpose of breathing.

The following is the mode of catching whales.

As soon as a ship arrives at a large field of ice, as is termed, three or four boats are put out to watch for the whale's coming from beneath the ice, which is judged of by the noise they make in approaching and rising. When the whale gains the surface of the water, the harpooner seizes the opportunity to dart the harpoon either into his body, or near his snout; for there is no striking into the bone of his head. When the whale is struck, the other boats, which are near at hand, approach to give assistance, and an oar is put up at the head of the harpooner's boat who wounded the animal, and they cry out, *fall! fall!* upon which token other boats from the ship join those already concerned, to render every needful help as exigencies may require. As soon as the whale is struck, they take care to give him rope enough, for otherwise, when he goes down, as he frequently does, he would inevitably sink the boat; and this rope he draws so quick, that, if it were not well watered, it would set the boat on fire. The line fastened to the harpoon is six or seven fathoms long, and is called the forerunner. It is made of the finest and softest hemp, that it may slip the easier. To this they join a heap of lines, of ninety or an hundred fathoms each; and when there are not enough in one boat, they borrow from another. The man at the helm observes which way the rope goes, and steers the boat accordingly, that it may run exactly out before; for the whale runs away with the line as fast as the wind, and would overset the boat if it were not kept strait: during which the other boats row before, and observe which way the line stands, and sometimes pull it. If they feel it stiff, it is a sign the whale still pulls in strength; but if it hangs loose, and the boat lies equally high, before and behind, upon the water, they pull it in gently, but take care to lay it so, that the whale may have it easily again, if he recovers strength. They

They are cautious, however, not to give him too much line, because he sometimes entangles it about a rock, and so gets loose. When this happens, however, if he is afterwards taken by the crew of another ship, he is returned to those who first wounded him, as that is known by the harpoon, which is always distinguished by a peculiar mark. They begin to stink as soon as they expire; and their flesh ferments, creating such a steam as inflames weak eyes. When they see him spout out blood, they know that he draws towards his end, and then prepare for cutting him up. In order to do this they haul him close to the ship's side, and slice his sides with great knives, raising the blubber by a hook and a pulley, which they lift up as they cut. In this work they must be extremely expeditious, otherwise the sharks, which abound here, will have a greater share of the flesh than the whalers themselves. Of the great flakes of flesh they used formerly to make their oil upon the spot, but at present the blubber is barrelled up, and brought to England, Holland, &c. to be boiled at leisure, the huts at Spitzbergen being rather neglected. Some ships even return from the whale fishery without seeing that country, proceeding no farther than a certain latitude, and there fishing without being molested by a lee-shore, ice, or currents. The ships that use this trade usually carry from 30 to 50 men, six or seven boats, and from 400 to 800 hogheads of blubber. Their arms consist of 60 lances, 6 sea-horse lances, 40 harpoons, 10 long harpoons for striking whales under water, 6 small sea-horse harpoons, and 30 lines, of nine or ten hundred fathoms each.

Seal-catching also makes a valuable branch of the fishing practised in these seas. Three hundred seals yield near as much blubber as a middling sized whale. The seals are not harpooned, but are generally knocked on the head with clubs; and many bears are likewise shot, killed with lances, &c. upon the ice. The ships set sail in February for the seal fishery, and in April for the whale fishery; government allowing a bounty to these ships of 40s. per ton, as far as 300 tons; so that a ship of such a burthen receives 600l. bounty money. If a ship is clear of the ice after the 1st of June, and goes back again, or if it is known that she carries out with her less than six months provisions, she forfeits her bounty.

Within the body of the whale is seldom found any thing but ten or twelve handfuls of a kind of small black spiders, and some small quantities of green herbs, torn up from the bottom of the sea, which are supposed to be the food upon which the whales chiefly live. The sea hereabouts is so covered with these insects, that it appears quite black; which is a sign, to those who go about catching of whales, that they are like to make a good booty. The whales generally delight in that part of the sea which produces these insects.

Of the whale kind there are also the dragon-fish, long, thin, grey, and glittering, with two fins on his back, and two holes, through which he spouts the water.

The butshorf, or laced-head, is sixteen feet long, with a spout-hole in his neck, a brown back, and a white belly.

The white-fish is as long as the butshorf, but much fatter.

The sea-unicorn whale is from sixteen to twenty feet in length, with a spout-hole in his neck, and projecting from his snout, having a fine wreathed horn, for which he is principally valued. The throne of his Danish majesty is entirely composed of these horns, which were formerly deemed great specifics against poison.

The fin-fish whale is as long as the blubber, or whale-bone whale, but not above one third part so bulky. It is known by the fin on the back near the tail, and

by the spouting up of the water more violently, and higher, than the other whale. The back is more strait than that of a whale, and the lips are of a brownish colour, appearing like a twisted rope. The whalebone hangs from the upper lip, as it does in the whale, but not out of the mouth at the sides, as in that animal. The inside of the mouth, between the whalebones, is all over hairy, and is of a blue colour, that is, when the bone begins to grow; for the other is brown, with yellow streaks, which are thought to be the oldest. The colour of this fish is like that of a tench, and the shape of the body is long and slender. The tail is flat, like that of the whale; and he seldom appears till the whales are gone. All these creatures swim before the wind, and are observed to tumble immediately before storms; a circumstance from which some naturalists have concluded, that, from the change in the atmosphere, they are violently seized with the cramp in their bellies.

The whale is harrassed by a variety of enemies, besides the vermin which adheres to his body like lice. He is pursued by the saw-fish, or sword-fish, some of which are twenty feet long. This fish is shaped like a man's arm, and his eyes are remarkably prominent. His sword projects from his snout, is of different lengths, according to the different sizes of the fish, sometimes smooth and sharp, like a real sword, and sometimes indented like a saw; hence the creature is called either sword-fish, or saw-fish. A very few of these animals will attack and master a great whale; yet, when they have slain him, they eat no part of him but the tongue. In calm weather the fishermen lie upon their oars, as spectators of this combat, until they perceive the whale at the last gasp, when they row towards him, and his enemies retiring at their approach, the fishermen enjoy the fruits of the victory.

There is another more desperate enemy of the whale, known by the name of the hay, which is of the shark kind: they are of different sizes, being from one to three fathoms long. The hay is so voracious that it tears large pieces of flesh from the whale, as if they had been dug with shovels. The liver of this fish abounds with oil, and is excessively large. The flesh on their backs, when dried some days in the air, is accounted tolerable provision, either boiled or roasted; and the smaller the fish the better. They are caught by a large hook, baited with flesh, and fastened to a long iron chain: and if men fall overboard by accident, the hays, in their turn, devour them.

The whale, in scripture, is called leviathan. In the book of Job it is particularly mentioned; some part of the paraphrase on which, by Dr. Young, we shall here preserve.

His bulk is charg'd with such a furious soul,
That clouds of smoak from his spread nostrils roll,
As from a furnace; and, when round his ire,
Fate issues from his jaws in streams of fire.
The rage of tempests, and the roar of seas,
Thy terror, this thy great superior please.
Strength on his ample shoulders sits in state:
His well join'd limbs are dreadfully complete.
His flakes of solid flesh are slow to part:
As steel his nerves, as adamant his heart.
Large is his front, and when his burnish'd eyes
Lift up their lids the morning seems to rise.
His pastimes, like a cauldron, boil the flood,
And blacken ocean with the rising mud.
The billows feel him as he works his way;
His hoary footsteps shine along the sea.
The foam, high wrought with white, divides the
green,
And distant sailors point where death has been.

Narrative of the extraordinary Adventures of Eight British Mariners, who passed a whole Winter in the rigorous Climate of Greenland, with the Expedients they used to procure a Subsistence, the extreme Hardships they sustained, and the Means of their Deliverance and Return to their Native Land.

FROM the extreme rigour of the climate of this country, it was long deemed uninhabitable throughout the year, till the fate of some British mariners, who sailed thither in the year 1630, proved the contrary.

The Salutation, a Greenland ship, which sailed from the Thames on the 1st of May, and arrived here the 11th of the next month, being in want of provision the latter end of the year, sent eight men on shore in a boat, to a place frequented by rein deer, to kill venison, leaving them there, with orders to follow the ship to Green Harbour, which lies to the southward of the place where they went ashore. These men, having killed 14 or 15 deer, lay that night ashore, and proposed next day to have gone on board, but a great quantity of ice driving towards the shore, obliged the ship to stand out so far to sea, that when they came to Green Harbour she was out of sight. The ships being to rendezvous in Belsound, further to the southward, and being to leave the country within three days, our hunters began to be very anxious, lest the shipping should be gone from thence too before they arrived. They thought it proper, therefore, to throw their venison into the sea, in order to lighten the boat, and made the best of their way to Belsound, distant from thence about sixteen leagues: but none of them knowing the coast, they overshot their port about ten leagues, when, sensible of their error, they returned to the northward. One of their company, however, being positive that Belsound lay farther to the south, they were induced to sail to the southward again, till they were a second time convinced of their mistake, and turned their boat to the north again, and at length arrived at Belsound; but had spent so much time in rowing backwards and forwards, that the ships had actually left the coast, and were gone to England, to their great astonishment, being provided neither with cloaths, food, firing, or house to shelter themselves from the piercing cold they were to expect in so rigorous a climate. They stood sometime looking on one another, amazed at the distress to which they were so suddenly reduced; but their consternation being a little abated, they began to think of the most proper means to subsist themselves during the approaching winter. The weather being favourable, they agreed, in the first place, to go to Green Harbour, and hunt for venison, having two dogs with them very fit for their purpose.

On the 25th of August they went in their boat to Green Harbour, where they arrived in twelve hours, being 16 leagues to the northward of Belsound. Here they set up a tent made with the boat's sail, the oars serving for poles; and, having slept a few hours, went early next morning to their sport, killing seven or eight deer, and four bears. The day following they killed twelve deer more, with which they loaded their boat; and finding another boat, which had been left there by the company, they loaded that with the greaves of whales, (being the pieces which remain in the coppers after the oil is drawn from them,) and returned with their booty to Belsound. Here happened to be set up a large substantial booth, which the coopers worked in at the fishing season: it was 80 feet long, and 50 broad, covered with Dutch tiles, and the sides were well boarded. Within this booth these sailors determined to build another of less dimensions, being furnished with boards and timber, by pulling down a booth which stood near the former; and from the chimnies of three furnaces, used for the boiling of oil, they got 1000 bricks. They found also four hogheads of very fine lime, which, mingled with the sand on the sea shore, made excellent mortar. But the weather was

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now grown so cold, that they were obliged to have two fires to keep their mortar from freezing. They persisted, however, in their work, and raised a wall, of a brick thickness, against one of the sides of their innermost booth; but wanting bricks to finish the rest in like manner, they nailed thick boards on each side the timbers, and filled up the space between with sand; by which means it became so tight and close, that the least breath of air could not enter it; and their chimney's vent was in the greater booth. The length of the lesser booth, or rather house, was 20 feet, the breadth 16, and the height 10; their ceiling being made of deal boards five or six times double, and so overlaid, that that no air could possibly come in from thence. Their door they not only made as strong and close as possible, but lined it with a bed which they found there. They made no windows, except a little hole in the tiles of the greater booth, by which they received some little light down the chimney of the lesser. The next work was to make them four cabins, chusing to lie two in each cabin. Their bedding was the skins of the reindeer, the same that the Laplanders use; and they found them exceeding warm. For firing they took to pieces some casks, and seven or eight of the boats which were left behind; for it seems they used a great many boats in whale-fishing, which they left in the country every winter, rather than be at the trouble of carrying them backwards and forwards. Our sailors stowed their firing between the beams and the roof of the greater booth, in order to make it the warmer, and keep out the snow, which would have covered every thing in the greater booth, if it had not been for this contrivance.

On the 12th of September, observing a piece of ice come driving towards the shore, with two morses (or sea-horses) asleep upon it, they went out in their boat, with a harping-iron and killed them both. On the 19th they killed another, which was some addition to their food. But taking a survey of all their provisions, they found that there was not half enough to serve them the whole winter, and therefore stinted themselves to one meal a day, and agreed to keep Wednesdays and Fridays as fasting days, allowing themselves then only the fritters or greaves of the whales, which, as observed already, are only the scraps of the fat of the whale, which are thrown away after the oil is got out of them, and is very loathsome food.

By the 10th of October the nights were grown long, and the weather become so cold that the sea was frozen over; and having no business now to divert their thoughts, as hitherto, they began to reflect on their miserable circumstances; sometimes complaining of the cruelty of the master of the ship for leaving them behind; at other times excusing him, and bewailing his misfortunes, as believing him to have perished in the ice. At length, putting their confidence in the Almighty, who alone could relieve them in their great distress, they offered up their prayers for strength and patience to go through the dismal trial.

Having surveyed their provisions again, they found that the fritters of the whale were almost all mouldy, having taken some wet; and that, of their bear and venison, there was scarce enough left to afford them five meals a week; whereupon it was agreed to live four days in the week upon the mouldy fritters, and the other three to feast upon bear and venison. Lest they should want firing hereafter to dress their meat, they thought proper to roast half a deer every day, and stow it up in hogheads. With this kind of food they filled three hogheads and a half, leaving as much raw as would serve to roast a quarter every Sunday, and a quarter for Christmas-day.

It being now the 14th of October the sun left them, and they saw it no more till the 3d of February; but they had the moon all the time, both day and night, though very much obscured by the clouds and foul weather. There was also a glimmering kind of day-light, for eight hours, the latter end of October, which shortened every day till the 1st of December, from which

7 M

time,

to the 20th of the same month, they could perceive no day-light at all. It was now one continued night, there appearing only, in clear weather, a little whiteness, like the dawn of day, towards the south.

On the 1st of January they found the day to increase a little. They counted their days, it seems, in the dark season, by the moon, and were so exact, that, at the return of the shipping, they were able to tell the very day of the month on which the fleet arrived. For light within doors they made three lamps of some sheet lead they had found upon one of the coolers; and there happened to be oil enough to supply them left in the cooper's tent. For wicks they made use of rope-yarn. These lamps were one of the greatest comforts to them in that long continued night. Their hardships, however, were so great, that sometimes they were driven to despair. At other times they hoped they were reserved as a wonderful instance of God's mercy in their deliverance, and continued to fall down on their knees, and implore divine protection.

With the new year the cold increased to that degree, that it sometimes raised blisters in their flesh, as if they had been burnt; and the iron they touched stuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold often seized them in such a manner that it made them sore, as if they had been beaten. Their water, the first part of the winter, issued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of basin, or receptacle, by the sea side, where it remained with a thick ice over it, which they dug open at one certain place with pick-axes every day. This continued to the 10th of January, when they drank snow water, melted with a hot iron, until the 20th of May following.

On taking another review of their provisions, they found that they would not last them above six weeks longer. To alleviate their misery, however, on the 3d of February they were cheered again with the bright rays of the sun, which shone upon the tops of the snowy mountains with inconceivable lustre. To them, at least, this afforded the most delightful scene that ever was beheld; for, after a night of many weeks and months, what could be imagined more glorious or pleasing to a mortal eye? As an addition to their joy, the bears began to appear again, on the flesh of which animal they made many hearty meals. But the bears were as ready to devour our countrymen as they were the bears; and being pinched with hunger in this barren country, came up to their very door. One of these creatures, with her cub, they met at the entrance of their apartment, and gave her such a reception with their pikes and lances, that they laid her dead upon the spot, and the young one was glad to make its escape. The weather was so very cold that they could not stay to flay her, but dragged the beast into their house. There they cut her into pieces of a stone weight, one of which served them for a dinner. Upon this they fed twenty days, esteeming her flesh beyond venison. Her liver only did not agree with them; for, upon eating it, their skins peeled off: though one of the company, who was sick, attributed his cure, in part, to the eating it. If it be demanded how they kept their venison and bear's flesh without salt, it is to be observed, the cold is so intense that no carcase ever putrefies. Flesh needs so salt to keep it here: that was their happiness. Had they been stocked with salt provisions, they had infallibly died of the scurvy, as others did who were left on the shore, much better provided with liquors, and other necessaries, than these poor men were. By the time they had eaten up this bear, others came about their booth frequently, to the number of 40 or more, of which they killed seven, (one of them six feet high at least,) roasting their flesh upon wooden spits, having no other kitchen furniture, except a frying-pan they found in one of the booths. Having now plenty of provisions, they eat very heartily, and found their strength increase apace.

Being now the 16th of March, and the days of a reasonable length, fowls, which, in the winter time,

were fled to the southward, began to resort to Greenland again in great abundance, where they live and breed in the summer, feeding upon small fish. The foxes, also, which had kept close in their holes under the rocks all the winter, now came abroad, and preyed upon the fowls; of which our countrymen having taken some, baited traps with their skins, and caught five foxes in them, which they roasted, and found them to be very good meat, at least in the opinion of men who had hitherto fed much on bear's flesh. Thus they continued taking fowls and foxes till the 1st of May, meeting with no further misfortunes, except the loss of one of their mastiff dogs, which went from their house one morning in the middle of March, and was never seen afterwards, being probably overpowered and eaten by the bears.

The weather beginning to grow warm in May, they rambled about in search of willocks eggs, a fowl about the size of a duck, of which they found some, being a change of diet they were very much pleased with.

The season now coming on for the arrival of the shipping, some of them went every day almost to the top of a mountain to see if they could discern the water in the sea, which they had no sight of till the 24th, when, it blowing a storm, and the wind sitting from the main ocean, broke the ice in the bay, and soon after turning about easterly, carried great part of the ice out to sea; but still the water did not come within three miles of their dwelling.

The next morning, the 25th of May, none of their men happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outer booth, heard somebody hail the house in the same manner as sailors do a ship, to which the men in the inner booth answered, in seamen's terms, that they were just then going to prayers, and stayed but for the man in the outer booth to join with them. The man who hailed them was one of the boat's crew that belonged to an English ship just arrived which our sailors no sooner understood, than they ran out to meet their countrymen, looking upon them as so many angels sent from heaven to their relief; and certainly the transport of joy they felt upon this occasion, if it may be conceived, can never be expressed. A mortification still remained which no man could well have expected. One of the ships which arrived, was commanded by the same master who left these poor wretches on shore, and he, like a barbarous brute, in order to excuse his own inhumanity, began to revile them in the most opprobrious terms. This man, it seems, had left seven or eight other men in Greenland two years before, which were never heard of afterwards; for which, no doubt, he richly deserved the severest punishment. Notwithstanding the barbarity of their own captain, the commander and officers of the other ship took care they should be kindly used, and brought to England when the season for whale fishing was over, where they received a gratuity from the Russia company, and were otherwise well provided for by them. Perhaps there is no instance in history of a company of men, in such extreme distress, who shewed more courage and patience, or made a more wise provision for their preservation than these did.

Singular Adventures of Four Russian Sailors, who remained several Years in Greenland or Spitzbergen.

IN the year 1743 a merchant of Melen, a town in the province of Jugovia, in the government of Archangel, fitted out a vessel, carrying 15 men. She was destined for Spitzbergen, to be employed in the whale or seal fishery. For eight successive days, after they had sailed, the wind was fair; but on the 9th it changed; so that instead of getting to the west of Spitzbergen, the usual place of rendezvous for the Dutch ships, and those of other nations, annually employed in the whale fishery, they were driven eastward. After some days, however, they approached within two English miles of the shore, when their vessel was suddenly surrounded

surrounded by ice, and they found themselves in an extreme dangerous situation.

In this alarming state a council was held, when the mate informed them, that he recollected to have heard, that some of the people of Meseu, some time before, having formed a resolution of wintering here, had accordingly carried from that city timber proper for building a hut, and actually erected one at some distance from the shore.

This information induced the whole company to resolve on wintering there, if the hut, as they hoped, still existed; for they clearly perceived the imminent danger they were in, and that they must inevitably perish if they continued in the ship. They therefore dispatched four of their crew in search of the hut, or any other succour they could meet with.

As the shore, on which they were to land, was uninhabited, it was necessary that they should make some provision for their expedition. They had almost two miles to travel over loose ridges of ice, which, being raised by the waves, and driven against each other by the wind, rendered the way equally difficult and dangerous. Prudence, therefore, forbade their loading themselves too much, lest, being overburthened, they might sink in between the pieces of ice, and perish.

Having thus maturely considered the nature of their undertaking, they provided themselves with a musket, and a powder horn containing twelve charges of powder, with as many balls, an axe, a small kettle, a bag with about 20 pounds of flour, a knife, a tinder-box and tinder, a bladder filled with tobacco, and every man his wooden pipe. Thus accoutred, these four sailors quickly arrived at Spitzbergen, little suspecting the misfortunes that would befall them.

They began with exploring the country, and soon discovered the hut they were in search of, about an English mile and a half from the shore. It was 36 feet in length, 18 in height, and as many in breadth. It contained a small anti-chamber, about 12 feet broad, which had two doors, the one to shut it up from the outer air, and the other to form a communication with the inner room. This contributed greatly to keep the large room warm, when once heated. In the large room was an earthen stove, constructed in the Russian manner, that is, a kind of oven without a chimney, which serves occasionally either for baking, for heating the room, or, as is customary among the Russian peasants, in very cold weather, for a place to sleep upon.

The sailors were exceeding glad at having discovered the hut, which had, however, suffered much by the weather, it having been built a considerable time; but, bad as it was, they contrived to pass the night in it. Early the next morning they hastened to the shore, impatient to inform their comrades of their success; and also to procure, from their vessel, such provisions, ammunition, and other necessities, as might better enable them to pass through the winter.

The reader may more easily conceive, than it is possible for words to describe, the astonishment and agony of mind these people must have felt, when, on reaching the place of their landing, they saw nothing but an open sea, free from the ice which, but a day before, had covered the ocean. A violent storm, which had arisen during the night, had certainly been the cause of this disastrous event. But they could not tell whether the ice, which had before hemmed in the vessel, agitated by the violence of the waves, had been driven against her, and shattered her to pieces, or whether she had been carried by the current into the main, a circumstance which frequently happens in those seas. Whatever accident had befallen the ship, they saw her no more; and as no tidings were ever after received of her, it is most probable that she sunk, and that all on board her perished.

This melancholy event depriving the unhappy wretches of all hope of ever being able to quit the place, they returned to the hut full of horror and despair.

Their first attention was employed, as may be naturally imagined, in devising means for providing subsistence, and for repairing their hut. The 12 charges of powder, which they had brought with them, soon procured them as many rein-deer; the country, fortunately for them, abounding in those animals.

It has already been observed, that the hut had sustained some damage. There were cracks in many places between the boards of the building that freely admitted the air. This inconvenience, however, was remedied, as they had an axe; and the beams were still sound, so that it was easy for them to make the boards join again: besides, moss growing in great abundance all over the country, there was more than sufficient to stop up the crevices, which wooden houses must always be liable to. Repairs of this kind cost the unhappy men less trouble as they were Russians; for most Russian peasants are known to be good carpenters.

The intense cold, which renders these climates habitable to few species of animals; renders them equally unfit for the production of vegetables. No species of tree, or even shrub, is found in Spitzbergen; a circumstance of the most alarming nature to these sailors. Without fire it was impossible to resist the rigour of the climate; and without wood, how was that fire to be produced or supported? Providence, however, has so ordered it, that, in this particular, the sea supplies the defects of the land. In wandering along the beach they collected plenty of wood; which had been driven ashore by the waves; and which, at first, consisted of the wrecks of ships, and afterwards of whole trees; with their roots, the produce of some more hospitable, but to them unknown, climate, which the overflowing of rivers, or other accidents, had sent into the ocean.

Nothing proved of more essential service to these unfortunate men, during the first year of their exile, than some boards they found upon the beach, having a long iron hook, some nails of about five or six inches long, and proportionably thick, and other bits of iron fixed in them; the melancholy relics of some vessel cast away in those remote parts. These were thrown ashore by the waves, at a time when the want of powder gave these persons reason to apprehend that they must fall a prey to hunger, as they had nearly consumed those rein-deer they had killed. This lucky circumstance was attended with another equally fortunate: they found, on the shore, the root of a fir-tree, which nearly approached to the figure of a bow.

As necessity has ever been the mother of invention, they soon fashioned this root into a good bow, by the help of a knife; but still they wanted a string and arrows. Not knowing how to procure these at present, they resolved upon making a couple of lances to defend themselves against the white bears, whose attacks they had reason to dread.

Finding they could neither make the heads of their lances, or of their arrows, without the help of a hammer, they contrived to form the large iron hook, before mentioned, into one, by beating it, and widening a hole it happened to have about its middle, with the help of one of their largest nails. This received the handle; and a round button, at one end of the hook, served for the face of the hammer. A large pebble supplied the place of an anvil, and a couple of rein-deer horns made the tongs. By means of these tools they made two heads of spears; and, after polishing and sharpening them on stones, they tied them as fast as possible, with thongs made of rein-deer skins, to sticks about the thickness of a man's arm, which they procured from some branches of trees that had been cast on shore.

Thus equipped with spears, they resolved to attack a white bear, and, after a most dangerous encounter, they killed one, and thereby furnished a new supply of provisions. The flesh of this animal they relished exceedingly, as they thought it much resembled beef in taste and flavour. They saw, with infinite pleasure, that the tendons could, with little or no trouble, be divided into

into filaments of what fineness they thought fit. This, perhaps, was the most fortunate discovery they could have made; for, besides other advantages, they were hereby furnished with strings for their bow.

The success of these people in making their spears, and the utility they produced, encouraged them to proceed, and to forge some pieces of iron into heads of arrows of the same shape, though somewhat smaller in size than the spears. Having ground and sharpened these like the former, they tied them, with the sinews of the white bear, to pieces of fir, to which, by the help of fine threads of the same, they fastened feathers of sea-fowl, and thus became possessed of a complete bow and arrows. Their ingenuity, in this respect, was crowned with success far beyond their expectation; for, during the time of their continuance here, they killed no less than 250 rein-deer, besides a great number of blue and white foxes. The flesh of these animals served them also for food, and their skins for cloathing, and other necessary preservatives against the intense coldness of a climate so near the pole.

They killed, however, only 10 white bears, and that not without the utmost danger; for these animals, being prodigiously strong, defended themselves with astonishing vigour and fury. The first they attacked designedly, but the other nine they killed in defending themselves from their assaults; for some of these creatures even ventured to enter the outer room of the hut, in order to devour them. All the bears, indeed, did not shew equal ferocity, either owing to some being less pressed by hunger, or to their being, by nature, less carnivorous than the others: for some of them which entered the hut immediately betook themselves to flight on the first attempt of the sailors to drive them away. A repetition, however, of these attacks, threw the poor men into great terror and anxiety, as they were almost in perpetual danger of being devoured. The three different kinds of animals before mentioned, viz. the rein-deer, the foxes, and the white bears, were the only food these wretched mariners tasted during their continuance in this dreary abode.

They were for some time reduced to the necessity of eating their meat almost raw, and without either bread or salt; for they were destitute of both. The intensity of the cold, together with the want of proper conveniences, prevented them from cooking their victuals in a proper manner. There was but one stove in the hut, and that being set up agreeable to the Russian taste, was more like an oven, and consequently not well adapted for boiling any thing. Wood, also, was too precious a commodity to be wasted in keeping up two fires; and the one they might have made out of their habitation to dress their victuals would in no way have served to warm them. Another reason against their cooking in the open air was the continual danger of an attack from the white bears.

To remedy, in some degree, the hardships of eating their meat half raw, they bethought themselves of drying some of their provision, during the summer, in the open air, and afterwards of hanging it up in the upper part of the hut, which was continually filled with smoke. This meat, so prepared, they used for bread, and it made them relish their other flesh the better, as they could only half dress it. Finding this experiment answer, in every respect, their wishes, they continued to practise it during the whole time of their confinement in this country, and always kept up, by that means, a sufficient stock of provisions. Water they had in summer from small rivulets that fell from the rocks; and in winter from the snow and thawed ice: this was, of course, their only beverage: and their small kettle was the only vessel they could make use of for this and other purposes.

It is well known that seafaring people are extremely subject to the scurvy. This disease increases in proportion as we approach the poles, which must be attributed to the excessive cold, or some other cause yet unknown. However that may be, the sailors, seeing

themselves quite destitute of every means of cure, in case they should be attacked with so fatal a disorder, judged it expedient not to neglect any regimen generally adopted as a preservative against this impending evil. One of their number, who had several times wintered on the coast of Spitzbergen, advised his unfortunate companions to swallow raw and frozen meat broken into small bits; to drink the blood of rein-deer warm as it flowed from their veins immediately after the killing them; to use as much exercise as possible; and, lastly, to eat scurvy-grass, which grows in this country.

Experience proved these remedies to be effectual; for three of these sailors, who pursued this method, continued totally free from all taint of the disorder. The fourth, on the contrary, who was naturally indolent, averse to drinking the rein-deer blood, and unwilling to leave the hut, when he could possibly avoid it, was, soon after their arrival, seized with the scurvy, which afterwards became so bad, that he passed almost six years under the greatest sufferings. In the latter part of that time he became so weak that he could no longer sit erect, or even raise his hand to his mouth; so that his humane companions were obliged to feed and tend him, like a new-born infant, to the hour of his death.

We have before observed, that they brought with them a small bag of flour. Of this they had consumed about one half with their meat; and the remainder they employed in a different manner, though equally useful. They soon found the necessity of keeping up a continual fire in so cold a climate, and perceived that, if it should unfortunately go out, they had no means of lighting it again: for though they had a steel and flint, yet they wanted both match and tinder.

In their excursions through the country, they had met with a slimy loam, or a kind of clay, out of which they found means to form an utensil that might serve for a lamp; and they proposed to keep it constantly burning with the fat of the animals they should kill. This was certainly the most rational scheme they could have thought of; for to be without a light in a climate where, during the winter, darkness reigns for several months together, would have added much more to their calamities. Having, therefore, fashioned a kind of lamp, they filled it with rein-deers fat, and stuck in some twisted linen, shaped into a wick. But they had the mortification to find that, as soon as the fat melted, it not only soaked into the clay, but ran through on all sides. It was therefore necessary to devise some means for preventing this inconvenience, not rising from cracks, but from the substance of which the lamp was made being too porous. They therefore made a new one, dried it thoroughly in the air, then heated it red hot, and afterwards quenched it in their kettle, wherein they had boiled a quantity of flour down to the consistence of thin starch. The lamp being thus dried, and filled with fat, they now found, to their great joy, did not leak; but, for greater security, they dipped linen rags in their paste, and covered all its outside with them. Succeeding in this attempt, they immediately made another lamp, for fear of an accident, that, at all events, they might not be destitute of light. When they had made themselves these two, they thought proper to save the remainder of their flour for similar purposes.

As they had carefully collected whatever happened to be cast on shore to supply them with fuel, they had found among the wrecks of vessels some cordage, and a small quantity of oakum, which served them to make wicks for their lamps. When these stores began to fail, their shirts and drawers were employed to make good the deficiency. By these means they kept a lamp burning without intermission, from the day they first made them, until that of their embarkation for their native country.

The necessity of converting the most essential parts of their cloathing, such as their shirts and drawers, to the

the use before specified, exposed them the more to the rigour of the climate. They also found themselves in want of shoes, boots, and other articles of dress; and, as winter was approaching, were again obliged to have recourse to that ingenuity which necessity suggests, and which seldom fails in the trying hour of distress.

They had skins of rein-deer and foxes in abundance, that had hitherto served them for bedding, and which they now thought of employing in some more essential service; but the question was how to tan them. After deliberating on this matter, they took the following method. They soaked the skins for several days in fresh water, till they could pull off the hair tolerably easy: they then rubbed the wet leather with their hands till it was nearly dry, when they spread some melted rein-deer's fat over it, and again rubbed it well. By this process the leather became soft, pliant, and supple, proper to answer every purpose for which it was intended. Those skins which they designed for furs they only soaked one day, to prepare them for being wrought, and then proceeded in the manner before mentioned, except only that they did not remove the hair. Thus they soon provided themselves with the necessary materials for all the parts of dress they wanted.

But here another difficulty occurred. They had neither awls for making shoes or boots, or needles for sewing their garments. These wants, however, they soon supplied, by means of the bits of iron they had occasionally collected. Out of these they made both, and, by their own industry, even brought them to a certain degree of perfection. The making eyes to their needles, indeed, gave them no small trouble; but this they also performed with the assistance of their knife; for having ground it to a very sharp point, and heated red hot a kind of wire, they pierced a hole through one end, and, by whetting and smoothing it on stones, brought the other to a point, and thus gave the whole needle a tolerable good form.

The next material instrument wanted was a pair of scissars to cut out the skins; but this deficiency was supplied by their knife; and though there was neither taylor or shoemaker among them, yet they contrived to cut out their leather and furs well enough for the purpose. The sinews of the bears and rein-deer served them for thread. Thus provided with the necessary implements they proceeded to make their new cloaths.

Their summer dress consisted of a kind of jacket and trowsers, made of skins prepared as above. In winter they wore long fur gowns, like the Samoides or Laplanders, furnished with a hood, which covered the head and neck, leaving only an opening for the face. These gowns were sewed close round, so that, to put them on, they were obliged to bring them over their heads like a shirt.

When our mariners had passed near six years in this dismal place, the man, whose illness has been already mentioned, and who had been all along in a languid condition, died, after having, in the latter part of his life, suffered the most excruciating pains. Though they were thus freed from the trouble of attending him, and the grief of being witnesses to his misery, without being able to afford him any relief, they were greatly affected at his death. They saw their number lessened, and every one wished to be the first that should follow him. As he died in winter, they dug a grave in the snow as deep as they could, in which they laid the corpse, and then covered it over in the best manner they could, to secure it from the bears.

At the time when the melancholy reflection, occasioned by the death of their comrade, came fresh in their minds, and when each expected to pay this last duty to the remaining companions of his misfortunes, or to receive it from them, they unexpectedly got sight of a Russian ship. This happened on the 15th of August, 1749. This vessel belonged to a trader of the sect called by its adherents *Stara Vieva*, that is, The Old Faith, who had come from Archangel, and proposed wintering in Nova Zembla; but the contrary winds they met with on their passage rendered it impossible for them to reach the place of their destination. The vessel was driven towards Spitzbergen, directly opposite to the residence of our mariners, who, as soon as they perceived her, hastened to light fires on the hills nearest their habitations, and then ran to the beach, waving a flag, made of rein-deer's hide, fastened to a pole. The people on board, seeing these signals, concluded that there were men on the shore who implored their assistance, and therefore came to an anchor not far from the land.

It is almost impossible to describe the joy of these poor people at seeing the moment of their deliverance so near. They soon agreed with the master of the ship to work for him on the voyage, and to pay him 80 rubles on their arrival, for taking them on board, with all their riches, which consisted in 50 pud, or 2000 pounds weight, of rein-deer fat, in many hides of these animals, and in skins of the blue and white foxes, together with those of the ten white bears they had killed. They took care not to forget their bow and arrows; their spears; their knife and axe, which were almost worn out; their awls and needles, which they kept carefully in a bone box, very ingeniously made with the knife only; and, in short, every thing they were possessed of.

Our adventurers arrived safe at Archangel on the 28th of September, 1749, having spent six years and three months in their rueful solitude.

The moment of their landing had nearly proved fatal to the loving and beloved wife of one of them, who, being present when the vessel came into port, immediately knew her husband, and ran with so much eagerness to his embraces, that she slipped into the water, and very narrowly escaped being drowned.

All three, on their arrival, were strong and healthy; but having lived so long without bread, they could not reconcile themselves to the use of it, and complained that it filled them with wind: neither could they bear any spirituous liquors, and therefore drank nothing but water.

However astonishing the above recital may appear, the truth of these adventures is sufficiently authenticated. When these unfortunate sailors arrived at Archangel, they were examined by the chief auditor of the admiralty of that city, who minuted down all the particulars, which exactly corresponded with each other. Mr. Le Ray, professor of history in the Imperial Academy, some time after sent for two of the men to Petersburg, from whose mouths he took the before mentioned narrative, which also agreed with Mr. Klinck's minutes. The original was published in the German language at Petersburg, in the year 1769, and transmitted from thence to the ingenious Mr. (now Sir Joseph) Banks, who, with several other members of the Royal Society, were so well pleased with the account, that they directed a translation of it to be made into English, for the gratification of the curious.



C H A P. II.

L A P L A N D.

SECTION I.

Name, Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Subdivisions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Vegetables, Animal and Mineral Productions.

THE natives of this country were called Scritofinni by the ancients, to whom the appellation of Lapland, or Lappia, was unknown. They originally inhabited Failand, from whence they were driven more northward, after which they were called Lappes, which, in the Finick tongue, signified exiles driven to the most remote places. The natives, of course, deeming that appellation opprobrious, call themselves Sabmienladfi.

Lapland being subject to three distinct sovereignties, viz. Sweden, Denmark and Russia, is divided into three parts; but as Swedish Lapland is by far the most considerable, both in point of extent and population, and as they all bear a similarity with respect to most particulars, we shall confine our description to that division, observing, in general, that all the country lying above the Gulph of Bothnia, along the coast of the north sea, even to the White Sea, is called Lapland.

Swedish Lapland is bounded on the east by Russia Lapland; on the west by a ridge of mountains that separate it from Norway; on the north by Danish Lapland; and on the south by Bothnia, Angermania, and Septerland. Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about 360 miles; in breadth it extends from 65 deg. 33 min. to 69 deg. of north latitude. It is divided into six provinces, or districts, the names of which are as follow, viz. Angermanland-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Torno-Lapmark, and Kimi-Lapmark.

These provinces, each of which receives its name from the chief river that waters it, are again subdivided into smaller districts called Biars, and these contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes reckars. Every Reckar, or family, is allowed a considerable track of land, with forests, lakes and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands are not enclosed, so that the property of one is often converted to the use of another.

Lapland is situated so near the pole, that the sun neither sets in summer, or rises in winter. In the latter season the cold is so intense, that none but the natives are able to bear it. The most rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and sometimes four or five feet thick. In summer the weather is as sultry as it is cold in winter: for autumn and spring are unknown in this climate. The excessive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that rise from the sea, and by the snow that continues all the summer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are sheltered from the sun. It seldom rains in the summer, but in winter the whole country is covered with snow.

The best description of the climate of this country is given by M. Maupertuis, who, with several other astronomers, was sent hither by order of the king of France, to discover the figure of the earth at the polar circle. "In December (says he) the snow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the most part hid the sun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increased to that extremity, that M. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which, at Paris, in the great frost of 1709, it was thought strange to see fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-seven. The spirits of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room the external air in-

stantly converted all the vapour in it into snow; whirling it round in white vortexes. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breasts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood, of which the houses are built, as if split by the violence of the frost, continually alarmed us with an increase of cold: in this country you may often see people who have lost an arm or a leg by the frost. The cold, which is always very great, sometimes increases by such violent and sudden degrees, as are almost infallibly fatal to those who are so unhappy as to be exposed to it; and sometimes there rise sudden tempests of snow that are still more dangerous. The winds seem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the snow with such fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered invisible. Dreadful is the situation of a person surprized in the fields by such a storm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him; he is blinded by the snow, and if he attempts to find his way home is generally lost. In short, during the whole winter, the cold was so excessive, that on the 7th of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty divisions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it rose two or three divisions above it; a difference in the height not much less than that which the greatest heat and cold felt at Paris usually produce in that instrument. Thus in 24 hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compass of a whole year."

Though the nights in winter are very cold, long and tedious, yet those inconveniences are, in some degree, obviated by the serenity of the sky, the brightness of the moon and stars, and the refulgent light of the aurora borealis, which is reflected from the white surface of the earth covered with snow, from all which such a light is produced, that the inhabitants are enabled to discharge their ordinary occupations. M. Maupertuis, in speaking of these nocturnal lights, says, "The days are no sooner closed than fires of a thousand figures and colours light up the sky, as if designed to compensate for the absence of the sun. These fires have not here, as in more southern climates, any constant situation. Though a luminous arch is often seen fixed towards the north, they seem more frequently to possess the whole extent of the hemisphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great scarf of bright light, with its extremities upon the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, glides softly up the sky, preserving, in this motion, a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and most commonly after these preludes all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs, like those seen in France towards the north, are here frequently situated towards the south; and often towards both the north and south at once. Their summits approach each other; the distance of their extremities widens towards the horizon. I have seen some of the opposite arcs, whose summits almost joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently several concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though with a little declination to the west; which I did not find to be constant, and which is sometimes insensible. It would be endless to mention all the different figures these meteors represent, and the various motions with which they are agitated. Their motion is most commonly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air, and the different tints of their lights give them the appearance of so many vast streamers of changeable taffaty. Sometimes they line a part of the sky with scarlet. On the eighteenth of December I saw a phenomenon of this kind."

kind, that, in the midst of all the wonders to which I was now every day accustomed, raised my admiration. To the south a great space of the sky appeared tinged with so lively a red, that the whole constellation of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at first fixed, soon moved, and changing into other colours, violet and blue, settled into a dome, whose top stood a little to the south-west of the zenith. The moon shone bright, but did not in the least efface it. In this country, where there are lights of so many different colours, I never saw but two that were red; and such are taken for presages of some great misfortune. After all, when people gaze at these phenomena with an unphilosophic eye, it is not surprizing if they discover in them the appearance of armies engaged, fiery chariots, and a thousand other prodigies."

The soil of this country is, in general, exceeding bad, being so intermixed with stones, that hardly any thing will grow in it; but in some places it is very moist, owing to the number of marshes and brooks with which it abounds.

The whole country is full of rocks and mountains. Those called the *Dofrine Mountains*, which separate Lapland from Norway, are of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow there prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath these mountains are large marshes and extensive forests, where there are many trees, though they stand at a great distance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are pleasant vallies, which are the most fertile parts of the country, being well watered by an infinite number of springs and brooks.

Most of the rivers rise from the mountains of Norway, and fall into the *Bothnian Gulph*. The chief of these are the *Uma*, *Lula*, *Rima*, and *Torna*. The *Uma* is greatly increased by the waters that flow into it from the rivers *Vendilor* and *Skialfre*. The *Lula* and *Rima* are both very considerable, and are swelled, in their course, by a great number of lesser ones. The *Torna* receives 29 rivers, one of which is a Swedish mile in breadth. When the snow melts all these rivers overflow their banks; and the chief part of them have stupendous cataracts. Besides the rivers here are also many lakes, which, as well as the former, abound with various kinds of fish.

The forests of Lapland produce a great number of trees, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some parts of it also produce the service-tree, willow, poplar, elder, and the corneil. They have several sorts of plants; but the most useful are the angelica and sorrel, which are greatly esteemed by the natives, who use them in their food. They have likewise different kinds of grass, heath, and fern: but the most plentiful, as well as most useful, vegetable is the *moschus*, or moss, of which there are several species, either adhering to trees, or growing on the surface of the earth. The rein-deer is almost wholly sustained by this vegetable, which, indeed, he prefers to all others, and without which he cannot subsist. The natives not only use it as forage for their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and restorative.

Here is also great plenty of berries, such as black currants; the Norwegian mulberry, which grows upon a creeping plant, and is much esteemed as an antiscorbutic; raspberries, cranberries, and bilberries. Juniper-berries are also very plentiful, and some of the trees grow to a considerable height.

The animals of this country are stags, bears, wolves, foxes of several colours, squirrels, ermines, martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks, and rein-deer; but the last of these is the most useful to the natives, who, without them, could not possibly preserve their existence; for these animals not only afford them food and garments, but also supply the place of horses, and travel in those parts where the latter animals would be entirely useless.

The rein-deer is a kind of stag, with large branched horns, the tops of which bend forward like a bow. He

is larger, stronger, and swifter than the stag; and his hair changes colour according to the season of the year. His hoofs are cloven and moveable; for which reason he spreads them abroad as he runs along the snow, to prevent his sinking into it. The horns are very high, and divided into two branches near the root. On each horn are three branches, one above another, which are again subdivided into smaller ones; inasmuch, that no horned beast whatever has the like, either for bulk, branches, or weight. The horns are of a light colour, and there are veins, or blood-vessels, running along them, under which there are furrows. When the beast runs he lays these horns upon his back; but there are two branches that always hang over his forehead, and almost cover his face. Most of these animals are wild; but some of them are tame, and exceeding serviceable to the natives. Those which are produced between a tame doe and a wild buck are not only the largest, but by far the strongest. These animals are of infinite use to the Laplanders; for, without subjecting them to the least expence, they supply them with almost every necessary of life. From these creatures they are furnished with milk and cheese, as also flesh, which they lay up for winter store. The skins afford caps, cloaths, boots, shoes, bedding, thongs, and many other articles. The nerves and sinews are twisted into thread. Their bows and arrows are tipped with the bones, and their boxes inlaid with the horn, which is likewise formed into curious spoons, toys, and utensils. These animals are likewise used as beasts of draught or burthen; and, far from demanding any provision or provender, dig with their feet among the snow for the moss, which they prefer to every other kind of food.

The dogs here are very small, not being above a foot in height. They turn up their tails, which are short; and their ears stand erect, like those of wolves. They are of a red colour, and very serviceable in hunting.

The birds of Lapland are swans, geese, ducks, lapwings, snipes, most sorts of water fowl, heath-cocks, stock-doves, wood-cocks, and partridges. Besides these, they have two kinds of fowl peculiar only to this country. The first is called the *kniper*, and is a kind of snipe, black on the head, back, and wings; but the breast and belly are white. It has a long red beak, set with teeth, and short red feet, resembling those of water-fowl. The other is called the *loom*, and is never seen on the ground, but either in the water, or flying. The partridges here are as white as snow, and, instead of feathers, their bodies are covered with a kind of wool. The rocks and mountains are frequented by eagles, hawks, falcons, kites, and other birds of prey.

The chief insects here are flies, which, in the summer, are hatched in the morasses and woods, and are frequently so numerous as to obscure the light of the day. They are venomous, and exceeding troublesome; inasmuch, that the rein-deer fly to the tops of the mountains for shelter; and the inhabitants move to the sea-side; these parts being the least infested by these pestilent vermin. Monsieur Maupertuis says, that, while he was here, the flies were so troublesome, that even the Finland soldiers, who are counted the most hardy troops in the service of Sweden, were obliged to cover their faces with the skirts of their coats from the attacks of these animals, which swarmed to such a degree, that the moment a piece of flesh appeared, it was blackened all over. Some of these flies are very large, with green heads, and draw blood from the skin wherever they strike.

The rivers and lakes abound with delicious salmon, which come from the Gulph of Bothnia; also trout, bream, and perch, all of which are of exquisite flavour, and of an amazing size.

In some of the districts are mines of silver, lead, and copper, together with excellent veins of iron; but they are not at present worked to any considerable advantage, their situation being almost inaccessible. In the district of *Torno* there is a vein of gold and silver mixed, another of lead and silver, and a third of copper;

per; and here they have both copper works and a foundry. They have also furnaces in the province of Lula, where they melt the silver which they dig in that part of the country. These mines, however, are only worked for a short time in the summer, the climate being so severe for the principal part of the year, as to prevent the engines from performing their offices.

In the rivers and lakes are found beautiful chrystals of a prodigious size, and so hard and fine, that, when polished, they appear like real diamonds. Here are likewise a great variety of curious stones, some of which bear the resemblance of animals, trees, &c. When the natives find these, they place them in some conspicuous place, and worship them as deities.

SECTION II.

Persons, Dispositions, Longevity, Habitations, Dress, Utensils, Employments, Method of Travelling, Customs, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, Diseases, Language, &c. of the Natives of Lapland.

THE Laplanders are remarkably short in stature, the generality of them not being above four feet and a half high, and some of them even under that size; the cause of which is attributed to the severity of the climate, and the poorness of their living. They are, in general, very disagreeably formed, having a large head, a broad forehead, hollow and bleared eyes, a short and flat nose, and a broad face, with short, black, and rough hair. They have broad breasts, slender waists, and small legs; but they are strong, hardy, and active, insomuch, that they will bear incredible fatigue; and it is remarked, that the stoutest Norwegian is not able to bend the bow of a Laplander. The women, however, are much less homely than the men; and some of them have a delicate and florid complexion.

In their dispositions they are very honest and hospitable; but so timorous, that they will fly the moment they perceive a vessel at sea, or the least footstep of a stranger. They are naturally hasty and passionate, and, when once provoked, not easily appeased. They indulge themselves in laziness to such a degree, that they neither plough or sow, but leave their ground totally uncultivated; neither will they seek for provender either by hunting or fishing, till they are compelled to it from mere necessity. It hath been observed, that when they have been transported to more moderate climates, they have soon died, though in their own country they live to a great age. It is no uncommon thing to see a Laplander, upwards of an hundred years of age, hunting, fowling, skating, and performing all the severest exercises with the most astonishing agility.

Their houses, or rather huts, are made of pieces of timber, or rafters, joined together, and covered with turf, or the branches of pine trees and coarse cloth. Some of them are built upon trees to prevent their being overwhelmed with snow, and to secure them from the wild beasts. Their huts have two doors, at the lesser of which no woman must enter, because from thence the men go to hunt; and should they meet the woman at going out, it would be considered as a bad omen. They have no other chimnies than a hole at the top of their huts, which serves to let the smoke out, and the light in. Their storehouses are built in trees, to secure their provisions from bears and other wild beasts.

Their dress in summer consists of a close garment, reaching to the middle of the legs, and fastened round the waist with belts. They have not any linen, and their cloaths are made of coarse wool, of a dark grey colour. The richer sort have their cloaths of various colours, but red is the most universally esteemed. At their girdles they hang a Norway knife and a pouch, the latter of which contains blints, matches, and to-

bacco, with other necessaries; the girdle itself being decorated with brass rings and chains. Their night-caps are made of the skins of the bird-loom, with the feathers on; and their shoes of the skins of rein-deers, with the hair outwards. In winter they are totally cased up in coats, caps, boots, and gloves, made of the rein-deer's skin, with the hair inwards. The women's apparel differs but little from that of the men: they hang to their girdles many rings, chains, toys, and knives, with a needle case, and other trifles. Their thread is made of the sinews of rein-deer; and in winter they lie in their skins. In summer they all cover themselves at night with large pieces of coarse cloth, to secure them from being stung by the flies and gnats.

The Laplanders make all their own furniture, their boats, their sledges, and their bows and arrows. The boards with which they make their boats are fastened together with twigs, the nerves of rein-deer, or the small roots of trees twisted together like ropes; and they caulk them with moss to keep out the water. They make boxes of their birch planks, which they neatly inlay with the horns of rein deer; and they are very dextrous at making baskets of the roots of trees, slit in long thin pieces, and twisted together. Some of these are made so neat that they will hold water; and they are particularly admired by the Swedes.

These articles are made by the men, who also perform the office of cook, by dressing victuals for the family. The women are employed as taylors and embroiderers; they make cloaths, shoes, and boots, and harness for the rein-deer: they spin thread with fur, and knit it into caps and gloves, which are very soft and warm: they likewise draw tin into wire through a horn, and with this they cover their thread, which they use, in embroidering on their caps and girdle, the figures of beasts, flowers, trees, stars, &c.

The mountaineers live chiefly on the flesh and milk of the rein-deer; the former of which they dry, and from the latter they make great quantities of cheese. Those who live in the low country feed on venison and fish. They have neither bread or salt; but instead thereof use the inner rind of the pine tree, dried and ground, and dried fish reduced to powder. They make broth of fish and flesh boiled together; and their usual drink is water heated in a kettle, which in winter hangs continually over the fire: but their greatest dainty is bear's flesh, which they eat on all particular festivals. On these occasions likewise they indulge themselves with brandy, and never think themselves so happy as when they can enjoy a pipe of tobacco. These commodities the better sort purchase at Norway, as also a few cows and sheep for their winter store. They make decoctions of berries, angelica, and sorrel, which they are not only fond of, but also deem them excellent preservatives against all scorbutic disorders.

Besides their domestic business, the Laplanders employ themselves in hunting, in which excursions they travel through the snow with astonishing expedition. They wear a pair of skais, or snow shoes, which are made of fir boards, covered with the rough skin of the rein deer: one of these is usually as long as the person who wears it, but the other is about a foot shorter. The feet are placed near the middle, and the shoes are fastened to them with strings, or thongs made with the sinews of the rein-deer. When the Laplander travels in this manner he carries a long pole in his hand, near the end of which is a round ball of wood; and this not only secures him from penetrating too deep into the snow, but also enables him to stop himself when occasion requires.

A Laplander will travel in his snow shoes at the rate of sixty miles a day without being fatigued. But the most expeditious method of travelling in this country is with a sledge drawn by rein-deer. This carriage, which is called by the natives pulkha, is made in the form of a small boat, with a convex bottom, that

that it may slide the more easily over the snow: the head of it is sharp and pointed, but the hinder part is quite flat. The traveller sits, or rather lays with his back against the end of the sledge, and holds a stick in his hand, with a large wooden ball at the end of it, with which he disengages the sledge from such obstructions as he may happen to meet with in the course of his journey. He must likewise take care properly to balance the carriage with his body, otherwise he will be subject to be overturned. The traces, by which the sledge is fastened to the rein-deer, are fixed to a collar about the animal's neck, and run down over the breast, between the fore and hind legs, to be connected with the prow of the sledge; the reins are tied to the horns, and the trappings are furnished with little bells, the sound of which is very pleasing to the animal. The rein-deer is so fleet that he will run with his carriage upwards of 100 miles a day. Before a Laplander sets out on his journey, he whispers in the ear of the animal the way he is to go, and the place at which he is to halt, from a persuasion that the beast understands his meaning; but, in spite of this intimation, he frequently stops short, and sometimes overshoots the mark by several miles.

Though this method of travelling is exceedingly expeditious, yet it is far from being easy, the person being continually in a confined posture; neither is it exempted from the most imminent danger, on account of the uncertainty of the roads, and the drifts of loose snow, which, if the wind blows high, are driven about with incredible fury.

As soon as the winter commences, the Laplanders mark the most frequented roads by strewing them with fir-boughs. Indeed, these roads are no other than path-ways made through the snow by the rein-deer and sledges: their being frequently covered with new snow, and alternately beaten by the carriage, consolidates them into a kind of causeway, which is the harder if the surface has felt a partial thaw, and been crushed by a subsequent frost. It requires great caution to follow these tracks; for if the carriage runs either on one side or the other, the traveller is thrown into an abyss of snow. In less frequented parts, where there is no such beaten road, the Laplander directs his course by certain marks which he has made on the trees; but, notwithstanding all his caution, the rein-deer very often sinks up to his horns in snow; and should a hurricane arise, which is sometimes the case, the traveller would be in great danger of his life, were he not provided with a kind of tent, to screen him in some measure from the fury of the tempest.

The rein-deer in winter is rather weak and dispirited, so that he cannot travel with the same alacrity as in summer. In this season the traveller is obliged to halt at different times, that the animal may rest himself; and in these intervals be fed with a kind of cake made of moss and snow, which serves him both for drink and provender.

The principal employment of the Laplanders, exclusive of their domestic affairs, consists in hunting and fishing. Those who practise the latter have small boats, so lightly constructed that they can carry them on their shoulders, which they frequently do, when interrupted on the rivers by whirlpools or cataracts. The boats are of different sizes, from two to six yards in length, managed with oars, and caulked with moss so tight, as effectually to keep out the water. They steer with amazing rapidity, even among the rocks, and down the most rapid water falls; but when they go against the stream, and meet with a cataract, they take out their boat, and carry it on their shoulders till they have passed it, when they launch it again, and renew their business.

The Laplanders who employ themselves in hunting, perform it various ways. In summer they hunt wild beasts with small dogs trained to the diversion. In winter they pursue them by their tracks upon the snow, skating with such velocity that they frequently run

down their prey. They catch ermines in traps, and sometimes with dogs. They kill squirrels, martens, and fables, with blunt darts, to avoid injuring the skins. Foxes and beavers are killed with sharp pointed darts and arrows, in shooting of which they are accounted the best marksmen in the world. The larger beasts, such as bears, wolves, elks, and wild rein-deer, they either kill with fire arms, or else ensnare by digging pits in those parts where they mostly resort.

They have particular laws relative to the chase, which they observe with great punctuality. The beast becomes the property of the man in whose snare or pit he is caught; and he who discovers a bear's den has the exclusive privilege of hunting him to death. The conquest of a bear is the most honourable achievement that a Laplander can perform; and the flesh of this animal they think more delicious than that of any other whatever. The bear is always dispatched with a fusil, sometimes laid as a snare, ready cocked and primed; but more frequently by the hands of the hunter, who runs the most imminent danger of his life, should he miss his aim.

The killing a bear is celebrated by the Laplanders with great rejoicings. The carcase is drawn to the cabin, or hut of the victor, by a rein-deer, which, on this account, is afterwards kept a whole year without doing any work. The bear is surrounded by a great number of men, women, and children, who recite a particular song of triumph, in which they thank the vanquished enemy for having allowed himself to be overcome, without doing any mischief to his conqueror: after this they address themselves to Providence, acknowledging the singular benefits they receive from his having created beasts for their use, and endowed them with strength and courage to attack and overcome them. The conqueror is saluted by the women, and is feasted by the men of the village for three successive days; besides which, he is ever after distinguished from the rest, by having laces round his cap, wrought with tin ware.

The marriage ceremonies of the Laplanders are very remarkable and ludicrous. When a young man has made choice of a female, he employs some friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and these being provided with some bottles of brandy, the suitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter: but the suitor is left without, until the liquor be drank, and the proposal discussed. After this he is called in, and entertained with such fare as the hut affords, but without seeing his mistress, who, on this occasion, is obliged to retire. The suitor having at length obtained leave to make his addresses to the girl in person, he goes home, puts on his best attire, and then returns to the hut, when his mistress appears, and he salutes her with a kiss; after which he presents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's flesh, or some other kind of provision. The girl at first declines the offer, it being made in the presence of her relations; but at the same time she makes a signal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where she accepts the presents. Thus encouraged, he begs permission of her to let him sleep with her in the hut; if she consents, she keeps the presents; but if not, she throws them with contempt on the ground. When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to visit his mistress as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes he must purchase this pleasure with a fresh bottle of brandy, a perquisite so agreeable to the father, that he often postpones the celebration of his nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the nearest church, by the priest of the parish; but even after this, the husband is obliged to serve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives presents from all his relations and friends. From this time he sequesters his wife from the company of all strangers of the male sex, and watches over her conduct with great vigilance.

When a lover goes to pay a visit to his mistress, during his journey through the fenny moors, he usually diverts himself with a song, which he addresses to his rein-deer. We shall present a translation of one of these from the original, taken from the Spectator, for the entertainment of the reader. The circumstances that successively present themselves to him during his journey, are naturally interwoven. The anxiety of absence, the gloominess of the roads, and his resolution of frequenting them, as those only carry him to the object of his wishes; the dissatisfaction he expresses even at the great swiftness with which he is carried, and his joyful surprize at the unexpected sight of his mistress, as she is bathing, are all beautifully described in the following composition.

Haste, my rein-deer, and let us nimbly go
Our am'rous journey thro' this dreary waste:
Haste, my rein-deer! still, still thou art too slow;
Impetuous love demands the light'ning's haste.

Around us far the rushy moors are spread;
Soon will the sun withdraw his chearful ray:
Darkling and tir'd we shall the marshes tread;
No lay unfung to cheat the tedious way.

The wat'ry length of these unjoyous moors,
Does all the flow'ry meadow's pride excel;
Thro' these I fly to her my soul adores:
Ye flow'ry meadows, empty pride, farewell.

Each moment from the charmer I'm confin'd,
My breast is tortur'd with impatient fires.
Fly, my rein-deer, fly swifter than the wind;
Thy tardy feet wing with my fierce desires.

Our pleasing toil will then be soon o'erpaid,
And thou, in wonder lost, shall view my fair;
Admire each feature of the lovely maid,
Her artless charms, her bloom, her sprightly air.

But lo! with graceful motion there she swims,
Gently removing each ambitious wave;
The crowding waves transported clasp her limbs.
When, when, oh when shall I such freedoms have!

In vain, ye envious streams, so fast ye flow,
To hide her from a lover's ardent gaze:
From ev'ry touch you more transparent grow,
And all reveal'd the beauteous wanton plays.

To this we shall subjoin a Laplander's love-song, the original having been procured from a native of Lapland. The translation is the performance of a nobleman deceased, whose genius, politeness, and literary accomplishments, were the admiration of all the courts in Europe.

Source of my daily thoughts, and nightly dreams,
Whose captivating beauties I adore,
O may the radiant sun's refulgent beams,
Shine on the charms of lovely *Orra Moor*.

I'd climb the summit of the lofty pine,
Could I my *Orra Moor* at distance view;
No labour, danger, care would I decline,
To see my charmer, and to find her true.

Could she be waisted to terrestrial bow'rs,
And there in pleasant shades induc'd to stay;
Or range enamell'd fields of sweetest flow'rs,
Charm'd by the birds that warble on each spray:

Enrag'd, those pretty birds I would destroy,
Pluck up the flow'rs that beautify the fields,
Cut down the bow'rs that rob me of my joy,
And from my view my *Orra's* beauties shield.

O that I could but soar unto the sky,
And wing my passage thro' the ambient air,
Swift as the feather'd race could I but fly,
I'd soon be with my captivating fair.

But vain, alas! my wishes are in vain;
No flock or raven will a pinion lend:
Fated to feel unmitigated pain,
With scarce a hope my passion to befriend.

So long my bliss can *Orra Moor* delay?
Reflect, the summer's sun now brightly gleams:
Short are our summers; haste, then haste away,
And, with thy love, enjoy his glad'ning beams.

Alas! unkindly you delay the time;
Our short-liv'd summer wears away apace:
You've tortur'd me, and dally'd with your prime,
'Till frowning winter shews his rugged face.

Still, still my lovely charmer I'll pursue,
And scorn all danger to reveal my pains;
For what can love, all-pow'ful love subdue!
He laughs at tempests, and despises chains.

Love! mighty victor, triumphs o'er mankind,
Brings ev'ry thought beneath his own controul,
Enslaves the heart, puts fetters on the mind,
And captivates the haughty human soul.

But hark! stern reason whispers in my ear,
Friend, you are wrong, thus to pour oil to fire;
Rashly to follow what you ought to fear,
And rush into a whirlwind of desire.

A thousand things advise you to desist,
A thousand dread examples bid you view
The fate of those whom love's delusive mist
Hath sily blinded, sadly to undo.

Reason, avaunt! to passion I submit,
And will not hear thy dispassioned tone:
Others thy thousand counsellors may sit,
But I'll attend the voice of love alone.

As soon as a child is born in Lapland, it is washed all over with snow or cold water, except the head, which must not be touched with water till after the child has been baptized. The woman does not remain in child-bed above four or five days, and in fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries the child to be baptized; but before she can reach the residence of the priest, she is often obliged to traverse large forests, mountains, lakes, and wide extended wastes of snow. The infant is fastened in a hollowed piece of wood, stretched naked on a bed of fine moss, covered with the skin of a young rein-deer, and slung by two straps to the back of the mother, who always suckles her own child. At home this little cradle is hung to the roof of the hut, and the child is lulled to sleep by swinging it from one side to the other.

When the children grow up, their parents are very careful in teaching them most kinds of work; but they have a great aversion to schools. The boys, from their infancy, are taught to practise the bow; and they are not allowed to break their fast till they have hit the mark. The female children are early initiated in the business peculiar to their sex.

The Laplanders have not any physicians among them; neither have they, indeed, occasion for any, not being subject to those distempers common in other countries. The disorder they are most subject to is sore eyes, occasioned by the smook of their huts, and the fire to which they are almost continually exposed. They are sometimes afflicted with rheumatic pains, and the scurvy; and a few are subject to the vertigo and apoplexy. To cure all inward disorders they use a drink made with the root of a certain species of moss, which they call *jerib*; and when that cannot be procured, they boil the stalk of angelica in the milk of rein-deer. When they feel a pain in any part of the body, they take a kind of mushroom, which grows upon the birch tree like a cake, and having set fire to it, apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and this produces a blister, which is supposed to draw off the peccant humour. They have no other plaisters for wounds but the resin which drops from fir-trees. When they have any

any limb frozen, they put a red-hot iron into a cheese made of rein-deer's milk, and with the fat that drops from it, like a kind of oil, they rub the part affected, which by that means is almost instantly cured.

When a Laplander is supposed to be on his death-bed, such friends as are advocates for the Christian religion, give him Christian exhortation. But those who have no great zeal for the Christian religion, forsake the dying person, and think of nothing but the funeral entertainment. As soon as the breath is out of the body, most of the company leave the hut, being of opinion they shall receive some injury from the spirit or ghost, which they believe remains with the corpse, and takes all opportunities of doing mischief to the living. The deceased is wrapped up in linen or woollen, according to his circumstances, and deposited in a coffin by a person selected for that purpose; but this office he will not perform till he receives a consecrated brass ring, which is placed on his left arm, and which he imagines secures him against receiving any injury from the ghost of the deceased.

Before the Laplanders embraced the Christian religion, they used to bury the dead in the first place they happened to think of, which they still do when they are very far from any church. Many of them also preserve the rites of heathenish superstition; for with the body they put in the coffin an axe, a flint and steel, a flask of brandy, some dried fish, and venison. With the axe the deceased is supposed to hew down the bushes or boughs that may obstruct him in the other world; the steel and flint are to furnish him with a light, should he find himself in the dark; and the provision is for him to subsist on during his journey.

Before the body is carried to the place of interment, the friends of the deceased kindle a fire of fir boughs near the coffin, and express their sorrow in tears and lamentations. They walk in procession several times round the body, demanding, in a whining tone, the reason of his leaving them on earth. They ask whether he was out of humour with his wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink, cloathing, or other necessaries? and whether he had not succeeded in hunting or fishing? These, and other such interrogations, are intermingled with groans and hideous howlings; and between them the priest sprinkles the corpse and the mourners alternately with holy water. After these ceremonies are over, the body is conveyed to the place of interment, in a sledge drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and relations, who shew their concern for the loss of the deceased, by dressing themselves in the worst garments they have, and keeping a continual howl during the procession. As soon as the ceremony is over, the people retire; and the sledge, with the cloaths which belonged to the deceased, are left as the priest's perquisite. Three days after the funeral, the relations and friends of the defunct are invited to an entertainment, where they eat the flesh of the rein-deer which conveyed the corpse to the grave. The animal being made a sacrifice to the manes of the deceased, the bones of it are collected together, put into a basket, and interred with great ceremony.

The effects of the deceased are divided between the brothers and sisters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly by all the children of both sexes, according to the division made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he assigned a certain track of land for the support of each family.

The language of the Laplanders is altogether barbarous, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correspondence which the natives maintain with the different nations, such as Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Russians. The greater part of them are totally ignorant of letters; and the same may be said also of arts, except such as necessity has taught them to make use of for their own preservation.

SECTION III.

Religion, Government, Trade, Revenue, &c.

CHRISTIANITY was first supposed to have been introduced into Lapland about the year 1300. However, no material progress was made in the establishment of it till the last century, when missionaries were sent for that purpose from Norway, Sweden, and Russia. Several churches were built in different parts of the country, and supplied with ministers from Sweden and Russia. Gustavus Adolphus founded two schools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for instructing the children of the Laplanders in the Christian religion and in letters. He also ordered several pious books to be translated from the Swedish into the Lapland language; such as the catechism, with some prayers, and the manual, containing the psalms of David, the proverbs of Solomon, &c. That they might be encouraged to send their children to school, an annual revenue was allotted for the maintenance of the scholars. Hence Lapland produced some preachers, which greatly promoted the knowledge of Christianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whose language the people did not understand, it could not be reasonably supposed that they should profit much by their instructions. Since that time, however, many have intermixed idolatry with the pure profession of Christianity, and, from local customs, their particular fondness for omens, particular times and seasons, distinguished by the names of black and white days, &c. &c. retain many of their former superstitions.

They have some notion of the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; for they not only respect the manes of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being mischievous, till they imagine the spirits of the defunct have re-animated other bodies. They believe there are fairies that wander about among the rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes, and give them also a share of their devotion. They own one Supreme Being, whom they arm with thunderbolts; they make the rainbow his bow, and have the same notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another subordinate deity, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the blessings of life, and never fail to worship him. The sun is another of their divinities, because of his influence on the bodies of men and beasts. They have temples and images consecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of stone. One of these is preserved in the royal cabinet of antiquaries at Upsal. All their women are excluded from worship. They anoint the idol with the heart's blood of the sacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain consecrated to Storjunkar, one of their deities, they dip a stone in the blood of the sacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and so conclude their devotion.

The Laplanders were formerly deemed great magicians, and the credulous supposed them to be mightily skilled in divination. So excessively credulous, indeed, are these poor Laplanders, and so preposterously in favour of their conjurors, that they implicitly follow their directions. If these pretended wizards tell them, that on such a day they shall take plenty of fish or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and as there is most commonly abundance of both in this country, they usually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go out in search of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it so, by not going abroad in quest of any thing.

The three powers to which Lapland is now subject, depute different governors, or prefects, to preside over their respective districts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1277, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the Rus-

fians and Norwegians soon after followed their example, and subdued the rest.

In Swedish Lapland, which is the most considerable district of the three, the laws of Sweden are observed; and three tribunals, or courts of justice, are erected: one for Angermanland Lapmark; a second for Uma, Pitha, and Lula Lapmark; and the third for Torno and Kimi Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a prefect, who determines all causes. They administer justice in the king's name, and in the presence of the priest.

The Laplanders, who live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of those countries. Such as are at a greater distance from those mountains trade only with the Swedes; and those who are situated towards the north and east, trade with the Russians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from those nations are rix-dollars, wool-len stuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, salt, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, and especially tobacco, of which they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fish, of the latter of which they take such large quantities, that they stock whole reservoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbouring countries; namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Russia. They also trade

in fine ermines, the skins of several wild beasts, dried pikes, and cheese made of the milk of their rein-deer.

The tribute paid by the Laplanders, consisted formerly in skins of wild beasts; but now they consist in a certain coin, rein-deer, and in skins, either dressed for certain uses, or raw; and are proportionable to the extent of land possessed by each head of a family. The largest are stiled entire territories, or territories of a full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who possess a territory, or land of half a tribute, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often, that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give skins of foxes or squirrels instead of coin. Fifty squirrel skins, or one fox's skin, with a pair of shoes, after the fashion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar: besides which, every head of a family is obliged to give yearly a white fox's skin, or a pair of shoes; and if he cannot procure those things, he must give half a pound of dried pikes. Part of these taxes are employed for the maintenance of the priests who live in that country, to instruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other districts of Lapland trade much in the same commodities; and pay the revenues in a similar manner to the respective states to which they are subject.

C H A P. III.

N O R W A Y.

S E C T I O N I.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Description of a tremendous Whirlpool called the Moskoeftrom.

NORWAY, Norwegia, or Nordway, so called in different languages, from the vicinity of its situation to the north pole, lies between 57 and 72 deg. north lat. and between 4 and 15 deg. east long. so that it extends about 5 deg. 30 min. within the polar circle. The length, from Lindasnoes, in the diocese of Christiansand, to the North Cape, at the extremity of Finmark, is about 1000 miles. Its breadth, from the frontiers of Sweden westward, to the Cape Staff, is better than 300 miles; but from thence the country narrows towards the north, and becomes much less in different parts. On the north and west this country is bounded by the Northern Ocean; on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of high mountains; and on the south it is bounded by the Schagenrack, or Cate-Gate, which is the entrance into the Baltic Sea. The coast extends near 400 leagues, and is surrounded by many islands, which afford pasture for cattle and is inhabited by fishermen.

The barriers of rocks and narrow channels formed by these islands, render Norway inaccessible to naval attacks. Nor is the North Sea the least impediment; for it is extremely difficult to navigate, contains many dangerous hidden rocks, and is subject to the most violent storms. But, above all, the terrible currents, and dreadful whirlpools, are great objects of fear to those who navigate these seas.

The principal of these whirlpools is called the Moskoeftrom, or vulgarly the Malstrom, receiving this appellation from the small islands of Moskoe and Moskoenas, between which it is situated. This current runs six hours from north to south, and returns from south to north the succeeding six hours, like the ebbing and flowing of the sea, but in direct opposition to the motion of the tides: for, during the flood, which runs from south to north, the Moskoeftrom runs from north to south; and during the reflux, or ebb, when the sea

runs from north to south, this current impetuously returns from south to north. It runs with surprising rapidity, especially between the island Moskoe, and the extremity of the island Moskoenas, where the tides rise highest; but gradually abates its impetuosity as it approaches the islands of Werroe and Rost.

The Moskoeftrom never runs in a direct line like other currents, but whirls about in a circular manner. For when it is half flood in the sea, the current here runs to the south-south-east: as the tide rises it winds southward, then proceeds towards the south-west, and afterwards due west. As soon as it is high water the current runs on to due west. When it is high water out at sea, the current of the Moskoeftrom alters its course to the north-west, and so gradually on to the north, where its impetuosity is at a stand for about three quarters of an hour. This interval is observed twice a day, after which the motion begins again. The appearance and effects of the Moskoeftrom have been described as very dangerous and dreadful; but, it must be owned, not without some exaggeration. A curious observer, who has seen it, relates, that it has no whirlpool or vortex, but that it is formed by the collision of an assemblage of foaming waves, rising, as it were, pyramidically to a great height, and with a prodigious noise. According to Schelderup's account, the Moskoeftrom is full of vortices, or terrible whirlpools, in the form of inverted cones, and about two fathoms deep from the base to the apex, or summit, and, as some relate, four fathoms in diameter. However, both accounts may, in some measure, be reconciled. This is certain, first, that the Moskoeftrom is not agitated with equal violence at all times; that about the new and full moon, the equinoxes, or in stormy weather, it rages with the greatest impetuosity; and that at other times it is more moderate, and twice a day quite calm. Secondly, that the navigation in that part of the sea is not absolutely impeded by it, as at half flood a vessel can safely go from Moskoenas to Werroe or Rost, and at half ebb may safely return to Moskoenas. Thirdly, that the streight betwixt Moskoenas and Werroe is twice a day quite smooth and navigable for three quarters

ters of an hour: and, lastly, that the inhabitants of those islands accordingly row in their boats to Moskoe, which lies in the middle of it, to look after their sheep, which feed on that island, and the fishermen found the bottom of it. After these intervals the swiftness of the current gradually increases to its usual boisterous rapidity and violence. Sometimes the waves in this current are not larger than those that are seen at sea in a hard gale of wind; but when its agitations are at the height, ships that sail on either side of it, keep at the distance of two or three Norway miles, otherwise they would be absorbed by it, and entirely destroyed. It is discernable, indeed, at a great distance at sea, and even within a quarter of a Norway mile of the continent; but this does not render the sea unnavigable at such a distance; for large vessels and small barks sail very securely within half a league of the Island of Werroe. This phenomenon does not proceed from any cavern or abyss under the water, but from its impetuous opposition to the current of the tides, and the collision of the waves.

An eminent navigator, and fellow of the Royal Society, in the year 1769, informed that learned body, in a letter, that, during the time of his being in the North Seas, he made particular enquiries concerning the Moskoeftrom, without being able to obtain any satisfactory information, till he met with the master of a Norwegian vessel, who, being a very intelligent person, gave him the following account: That at high water it is perfectly smooth, and safe to pass over; but as the tide, either at ebb or flood, gathers strength, it becomes in proportion exceedingly agitated and dangerous; which extreme agitation and whirling the navigator imputes to the unevenness of the rocky bottom, over which the current rolls with vast rapidity, being confined in a narrow passage: for this Norwegian told him, that, at very low water, pointed rocks, reaching above the surface, have been seen between the islands. It is no wonder then that such vessels may have been turned upside down, as have been drawn by the tide, in its most rapid state, into this gulph. The simple agitation of the water would sufficiently account, indeed, for the loss of open boats. This relation unravels, in some measure, the mystery of the Norwegian whirlpool; and seems to be confirmed by the following circumstances, related by a learned gentleman, from the concurrent testimonies of others. "The surface exhibits different vortices, and if in one of them any ship or vessel is absorbed, it is whirled down to the bottom, and dashed to pieces against the rocks. These violent whirlpools continue without intervals, except for a quarter of an hour at high and low water in calm weather; for the boiling gradually returns as the flood or ebb advances. When its fury is heightened by a storm, no vessel ought to venture within a league of it. Whales have been frequently absorbed within the vortex, and howled and bellowed hideously in their fruitless endeavours to disengage themselves. A bear, in endeavouring to swim from Loafden to Moskoe, was once hurried into this whirlpool, from whence he struggled in vain for deliverance, roaring so loud as to be heard on shore; but, notwithstanding all his efforts, he was borne down and destroyed. Large trees, being absorbed by the current, are sucked down, and rise again all shattered into splinters."

SECTION II.

Climate. Rivers. Soil. Mountains. Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral, &c.

THE climate of this country is extremely different, according to the situation of the different parts. At Bergen, and its vicinity, the winter is remarkably moderate. On the eastern parts of the kingdom it sets in about the middle of October, and continues till towards the latter end of April with uncommon severity, during which time the surface of the country in those

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parts is covered with snow, and the waters are all frozen. On the mountain of Ruden, or Tydal, in this district, a most dreadful affair happened in the year 1719. A body of Swedes being ordered to attack Drontheim, attempted to pass this mountain for that purpose, but being overtaken by a violent storm of snow and hail, they were bewildered and overwhelmed; and by thus having their march impeded, upwards of 7000 men, many officers, and the generals Labarre and Zoega, perished miserably. They were soon after found frozen to death by a body of 200 Norwegian sledgemen, under the command of Major Emahus, who discovered these unfortunate victims to the severity of the weather in various postures, some sitting, some prone on the earth, and others in a praying attitude. It appeared that, in order to preserve their lives as long as possible, they had cut to pieces their muskets, and burned the wood they afforded them.

The northern parts of Norway are still more intensely cold during the winter; but the summer is always warm, and often excessively hot, throughout most parts of the kingdom. By the reverberation of the sun's beams from the sides of the mountains; the weather in the vallies is rendered sultry. Add to this, that the sun is so very short a time below the horizon, that the atmosphere and mountains have not hours enough to become cool. Hence vegetation is remarkably quick; and the summer, by rendering vegetation exceedingly expeditious, seems to make some amends for the horrors of winter.

The longest day at Bergen consists of 19 hours, and the shortest of 6. In the beginning of the summer the light increases with vast rapidity, and declines with equal celerity at the commencement of winter, which phenomenon are owing to the earth's inclination towards the pole. At the northern extremity of Norway the sun is, for a considerable time, continually in view, keeping always above the horizon, circulating daily round the pole, and gradually enlarging and contracting his orbit, until he at length quits that hemisphere. When this happens all the light perceived at noon, for some weeks, is but very faint; and a winter's day can at best be deemed but a glimmer: but, happily for the inhabitants, the portion of time called night, is brighter than that denominated day; for what with the excessive glare of the moon, stars, aurora borealis, or northern lights, &c. the atmosphere is sufficiently illuminated to admit of their following their ordinary occupations at midnight, without the assistance of any artificial lights.

The air of Norway is, in general, healthy, except towards some parts of the sea-coast, where the moist exhalations are hurtful. Indeed, some persons, of consumptive dispositions, prefer such situations, on account of the greater ease with which a moist atmosphere acts on the lungs in respiration.

The great number of rivers, lakes, creeks, springs, &c. with which Norway abounds, and the melting of the snow in summer time, occasion frequent rains, which often cause floods. But the inhabitants are exposed to the greatest evils from sudden thaws, and the vast quantities of snow and ice which are thereby loosened from mountains and precipices, and overwhelm, in their fall, men, cattle, houses, boats, and even sometimes whole villages and hamlets. Somewhat more than two centuries ago, a whole parish, near Hardanger, was destroyed by the fall of a prodigious mass of snow. This being converted into ice still accumulated, and afterwards formed a frozen mountain, beneath which a rivulet ran through a kind of subterraneous passage, and, for some time, its waters frequently brought with them many of the utensils and fragments of the parish which had been so unfortunately overwhelmed.

The northerly winds here are the freezing winds; the southerly bring warmth; the easterly winds are stormy; and the westerly partake of the nature of trade winds, particularly on the coast of Bergen. It must be imagined

gined that the seas near this country are subject to a variety of squalls, hurricanes, &c. Indeed, they are frequently dreadful. Nor is the dangerous phenomenon of the water-spout uncommon.

The fresh water of Norway is heavy and impure, full of particles of iron and ochre; yet it is not so unhealthy, or unpleasant, as might be imagined.

The principal rivers of this country are the Nied, Sule-Ely, Gulen, Offeroen, Syre, Nid, Sheen, Tyrefjord or Drammoe, Laven, Glaamen or Stor-Elven. Of these rivers all the circumstances worth remarking are, that the river Gulen, in the year 1344, buried itself under ground, from whence it again burst forth with such violence, that the earth and stones thrown up by the eruption filled a valley near it, and formed a dam, which afterwards burst, through the force of the water, and occasioned the destruction of several churches, 48 farm-houses, and 250 persons. That the rivers Nid and Sheen have had their passages diverted by immense labour, and canals cut through the rocks for the convenience of navigation, and the greater facility of transporting timber to various places. And that the river Glaamen is the largest in Norway.

The chief fresh water lakes of Norway are Ryfvand, Shaafen, Selboe, the greater and lesser Miores, Sluivand, Sperdille, Rand and Vestn, Saren and Modum, Lund, Norsoe, Huidse, Farisvand Oeyavand.

" Wars (says an ingenious writer) have been maintained on these inland seas, in some of which are small floating islands, or parcels of earth with trees on them, separated from the main land, and probably preserved in compact masses by the roots of trees, shrubs, and grass, interwoven in the soil. In the year 1702 the family seat of Borge, near Frederickstadt, a noble edifice, with lofty towers and battlements, suddenly sunk into an abyss 100 fathoms in depth, which was instantaneously filled with a piece of water, forming a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. Fourteen persons, with 200 head of cattle, were destroyed by the river Glaamen precipitating itself down a water-fall near Sarp, and undermining the foundation. Of all the water-falls in Norway this of Sarp is the most dangerous, from its height and rapidity. The current drives seventeen miles, and roars along with such violence, that the water, dashed and comminuted among the rocks, rises in the form of rain, and, when the sun shines, continually exhibits a beautiful rainbow. In ancient times this cataract was used for the execution of traitors and other malefactors. They were thrown down alive, that they might be dashed in pieces on the points of rocks, and die in a dreadful commotion, analagous to those they had endeavoured to excite in the community.

The soil of rocky, mountainous, and low situations, must differ materially of course. The mountains of Norway are bare and barren; but the soil washed down from them by torrents of snow and rain, greatly increase the worth of the vallies, by fertilizing them to a prodigious degree. The earth consists of unequal strata of black mould, sand, loam, chalk, and gravel; the former, which lies uppermost, being extremely rich, and fit to nourish all kinds of vegetables. In some parts of the kingdom clay is found, of which a tolerable kind of earthen-ware is made. Those parts which are deformed by swamps and marshes, are exceeding dangerous to travellers. A narrow wooden causeway, in the diocese of Christiansand, is extended above a mile over one of these swamps; in passing which, if either man or horse make a false step, it is certain destruction.

The Norwegian mountains are astonishingly high, dreadful to travel over, and tremendous to behold. That stupendous chain of mountains which extends through Norway from north to south, and is indifferently called Ruefield, Sudefield, Skarsfield, and Scareberg, receives different appellations at different parts. In particular, the principal names of the respective divisions of this chain are Dofrefield, Lamsfield, Sagne-

field, Tilefield, Halnefield, Hardangerfield, Jocklefield, Byglefield, Hicklefield, and Hangfield. The height and breadth of the whole vary as this extensive chain runs. That part called Dorefield is supposed to be higher than any other mountain in Europe. In some places a traveller goes about seventy, and in others less than fifty miles, to pass the huge summit of this astonishing chain. Bridges are thrown over many dreadful cataracts, and other tremendous vacancies; and some of these are but very indifferently fastened to the steep rocks on the other side.

The road over that part called Tilefield, is named the King's, or Post Road; and, as guides, posts are fixed all the way, at the distance of 200 paces, to direct the traveller. This road extends 50 miles; and the only place of refreshment throughout the whole, are two houses, or mountain-stoves, as they are called, which are maintained, at the public expence, for the reception of travellers, as well as furnished with kitchen utensils, firing, &c.

Imagination cannot conceive, or language express, more dismal scenes than present themselves to those who pass these dreary mountains. Continually surrounded by dangers, and perpetually beholding spectacles of horror, the most hardy traveller must shudder, the most courageous be astonished, and the more timid be absolutely terrified.

There is a single defile, by which a person may go from Sweden to Nordensfield, without passing this chain, that is, where the whole is interrupted by a very long and deep valley, extending from Romdale to Guldbrandsdale. In the year 1612 a body of 1000 Scots, commanded by Sinclair, and sent over as auxiliaries to the Swedes, were put to the sword, in this defile, by the peasants of Guldbrandsdale, who never give quarter to any whom they deem foes.

Independent of this astonishing chain of mountains, there are a great number of others detached over the face of the whole country, and exhibiting a great variety of uncommon appearances. The vast mountains and rugged rocks that deform the face of this country, are productive of numberless inconveniences. They admit of little arable ground. They render the country impassable in some parts, and every where difficult to travellers. They afford shelter to wild beasts, which come from their lurking holes, and make terrible havoc among the flocks of cattle.

They expose the sheep and goats, as well as the peasants, to daily accidents, in falling over precipices. They occasion sudden torrents and falls of snow, that descend with incredible impetuosity, and often sweep away the labours of the husbandman. They are subject to dreadful eruptions, by which huge rocks are rent from their sides, and, being hurled down, overwhelm the plains with inevitable ruin.

The peasants frequently build their houses on the edge of a steep precipice, to which they must climb by ladders at the hazard of their lives: and when a person dies, the corpse must be let down with ropes before it can be laid in the coffin.

In winter the mail is often drawn up the sides of the mountains; and even in the King's road travellers are exposed to the frequent risks of falling over those dreadful rocks; for they are obliged to pass over narrow pathways, without rails, or rising on the sides, being either shored up with rotten posts, or suspended by iron bolts, fastened in the mountains. In the narrow pass of Naeroe is a remarkable way of this kind, which, upwards of six centuries ago, King Suerre caused to be made, with great pains and labour, for the passage of his cavalry.

Similar to the last mentioned road is another difficult and dangerous way between Vaug and Shogstadt: it winds by the side of a steep mountain, and, in many parts, is so narrow, that if two travellers should meet in those places, they would find it impracticable either to pass each other, or turn their horses; so that they must both inevitably perish, unless one consents to throw his horse

horse down the precipice, and then cling close up to the rock till the other passes him.

When a sheep or goat falls down a rock, the owner hazards his life to regain his animal. For which purpose he is let down tied to the end of a long rope, and fitting a-cross a stick, when he gets to the bottom, he fastens the creature to the same cord, and thus both are drawn up together. Sometimes the rope breaks, and at other times the assistants above are dragged down from the top, when all fall down the precipice, and usually perish together.

When a man or horse falls from a very high precipice, it has been observed that the breath is not only stopped, by the repercussion of the air, but the body always bursts before it reaches the ground.

The trees of Norway constitute a very principal part of its trade and commerce. Besides the vast quantities used at home in building houses, bridges, piles, moles, fences, ships, boats, &c. very large sums are received for firs and pines exported to various parts. The floating masts and large beams down the rivers, and dividing other timber into boards at the saw-mills, employ a vast number of hands, and contribute greatly to the revenue; for a tenth of all sawed timber appertains to his Danish majesty.

The ploughed lands in Norway, with respect to those parts which are mountainous, boggy, and covered with forests, is only as one to eighty; it cannot, therefore, be supposed, that the kingdom produces near a sufficiency of grain to supply the inhabitants. Peas, hops, hemp, flax, &c. are cultivated in some parts, but to no considerable advantage: the pasturage of the meadows, however, is rich, and nutritive to cattle.

The Norwegians formerly had garden-stuff, pot-herbs, &c. imported from England and Holland: for some years past, however, they have paid such attention to the cultivation of those articles, that they can now supply themselves.

Here are many wild plants, the infusion of one of which some of the inhabitants drink in the manner of tea, and deem it an admirable pectoral.

As the scurvy is a prevailing disorder in Norway, nature hath bountifully supplied that country with a profusion of antiscorbutic herbs, such as angelica, rose-wort, gentian, cresses, trefoils, sorrel, scurvy-grass, &c. But to counterbalance these conveniencies, Norway abounds with many nauseous and poisonous herbs and plants, that are prejudicial both to men and cattle.

An admirable grass, called *viola camina*, grows here, and which was rendered particularly famous by having, in the year 1652, contributed, in a most astonishing manner, to the preservation of two Norway youths. The story of this transaction is as follows:

Two brothers, on the first day of August, in the said year, made an excursion of about seven leagues from their father's house, to take their pleasure in hunting, shooting, fishing, &c. After having enjoyed the diversion of fishing for the space of four days, in the lake Riff, they rowed, in a small skiff, to a very small island on the said lake. While they staid here a sudden squall of wind occasioned the skiff to break loose, and drive to the shore, where their dog stood waiting for them.

As neither of the youths could swim, they saw themselves suddenly abandoned to famine, on a desolate island, and sequestered from all intercourse with mankind. Their first care was to build a kind of hut, with small stones, that they might, in some degree, be screened from the inclemency of the weather. Towards the close of the second day, their appetites being whetted to the keenest sense of hunger, they industriously sought some vegetable food, and ventured to eat the *viola camina*, each to the amount of an ounce twice a day; and this was all that they could find at one search. Their stomachs were eased, their spirits refreshed, and the acute pains which had begun to seize their arms and shoulders immediately abated. Eleven days did they subsist on this vegetable, but it failed on the twelfth,

and they were reduced to the brink of despair; when they accidentally found a little spot overgrown with sorrel, which they consumed at one meal: nevertheless it was re-produced in less than twenty-four hours, and the devout young men, with tears of gratitude to heaven, owned it as an interposition of Providence in their behalf. During the first days of their suffering they had called and beckoned to their dog, and used every possible allurement to induce that animal to swim over, that they might kill him for their subsistence, but he would not obey their signals. They were now reduced to such a weak condition that they could not stand, and could hardly make shift to creep from their hut in quest of the sorrel. The eldest was seized with a violent palpitation of the heart; and the youngest carved their names, and a short account of the sad accident they had met with, upon a piece of timber, pointing out, at the same time, a text of the psalms, on which he requested that their funeral sermon might be preached. Then having joined in fervent prayer, they embraced each other, and became perfectly resigned to their approaching fate.

In the mean time their dog, having tarried eight days with their baggage on the shore, returned to their father's house, where he refused food, and incessantly moaned in a most dismal manner: hence the parents concluded that their sons had met with some misfortune, and dispatched a man in search of them. The messenger arrived at the lake, found their baggage, and concluding they were drowned, returned with the melancholy tidings. On the thirteenth day of their being on the island, and after having resigned every hope of relief, they heard the trampling of horses feet, and exerting their utmost efforts, they called out loud enough to be heard. The travellers immediately came to the shore, and, having found the skiff, humanely put off to the island, where they found the brothers almost exhausted. The eldest, when food was offered him, could scarce bear the smallest portion; and, after being conveyed to his father's house, remained for some time in great danger; but at length recovered, and survived this disaster thirty-seven years. The younger recovered his strength somewhat sooner, and afterwards drew up this narrative as a pious acknowledgement of God's providence.

Common fruits grow tolerably well here; but the superior sort but very indifferently. Norway, however, produces a great variety of excellent berries, such as juniper-berries, sun-berries, goose-berries, barberries, cranberries, coriander-berries, rasp-berries, black-berries, bilberries, strawberries, &c.

With respect to the stones of Norway, they have a brown pebble, which easily decays; black, white, blue, grey, and variegated marble; alabaster, chalk-stone, cement-stone, sand-stone, mill-stone, baking-stone, load-stone, slate, talc, amianthus or asbestos, swine-stone or a kind of crystal, real crystals, granates, amethysts, agates, various kinds of spars, thunder-stones, and eagle-stones. The eagle-stone is very singular, and seems to consist of several shells, or crusts, laid one over another: but that which distinguishes it from all others is its being hollow on the inside, in which cavity there is another stone that is smaller. This, when it is shook, may be heard to rattle. It is of various colours, as white, grey, dun, or brown. Modern authors mention only three sorts of this stone; the first of which is rough on the outside, and is of different colours, but commonly of a black dun. This makes a very distinct noise when rattled. The second is of an ash colour, and contains a sort of marl in the inside, which is sometimes white, yellow, red, or blue. The outside is rough and sandy, and seems to consist of the particles of flint. A third is of several colours, but has the like contents as the former. The first kind is no larger than a peach-stone, but the other two are often as large as a man's fist. These sort of stones are found in most parts of the country.

Metals and minerals abound in Norway. Iron is found in great plenty, and was the first metal ever worked in the country. Great quantities are annually exported, partly in bars, and partly in cannons, stoves, pots, kettles, &c. the national profits of which are very considerable. There is one species called moor-iron, found in large lumps in morasses, and of this many domestic tools and utensils are made for home consumption. The lead mines are deemed of little importance, but the copper mines are thought inestimable. Of the latter are four of a capital nature, viz. That of Roaas, situated about 100 miles from Drontheim. The copper works at Lykken, about 20 miles from Drontheim. These are very considerable though inferior to the former. The mine at Indset, about 30 miles from Drontheim, where the copper is precipitated from its menstruum by the means of iron. The copper works at Selboe, which is the least considerable of the four.

In the diocese of Christiansand gold has been found, but not in any considerable quantities. At Kongberg is a very valuable silver mine, the ore of which is admirable. Large masses of pure silver have been found, among which one piece, weighing 560 pounds, is still preserved in the Museum at Copenhagen. The value of the silver annually obtained from this mine, is equivalent to the value of a ton and a half of gold; and the works employ, and give subsistence to, great numbers of persons. At Jarlsberg other silver mines are worked, but not to equal advantage, for this reason, that the ore is blended with lead and copper. At Kongberg a vitriol-work is established; and many parts of the kingdom yield sulphur and allum. Salt is likewise made here, and turns to very considerable advantage.

The quadrupeds of Norway are horses, black cattle, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, cats, &c. The horses are small but swift, hardy and spirited. The black cattle are of a diminutive breed, but their flesh is tender, delicate and juicy: and the cows yield plenty of milk. The flesh of the sheep is delicious, and the fleeces profitable. The goats are very strong, exceeding hairy, and their skins are much valued. Few hogs are reared here, but dogs are numerous of various kinds, and uncommonly serviceable; and the skins of cats, both wild and tame, bear a great price, being used for winter garments.

The wild animals of Norway are the elk, rein-deer, hare, rabbit, bear, wolf, lynx, glutton, lerning, ermine, marten, and beaver.

The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, bearing some resemblance both to the horse and stag. It hath long legs, flat horns, and cloven hoofs. It is of a harmless disposition: the flesh tastes like venison, and the hide is tanned into strong leather.

The rein-deer has already been described.

The hares are small, and change their colour with the seasons, being brown in summer, and white in winter; but the rabbits resemble those which are common in England.

The bear here is, by some, reckoned of the cat kind. While his hair is on, he is a very ugly creature; but when he is stripped of his skin, he, in some degree, resembles the human form. This resemblance consists chiefly in the length of the thighs, in which he is quite different from other brutes; and he has five toes opposite to the heel. The bones on the wrists are also like those of a man; but the thumbs are not separated from the rest of the fingers as in a man, and are placed on the contrary sides. Likewise the great toe on the foot is placed outwardly. In treading the bear does not touch the ground with his heel, for which reason it is covered with hair like the leg. Likewise the fingers of the fore paw are of a bad formation, being thick, and set close to each other.

The wolves in Norway traverse in troops the immense forests, thick woods, and lofty mountains, and make terrible devastations, devouring every creature they can conquer: they likewise assail the small hamlets, break into the farmers yards, and do incredible mischief.

Wolves and bears in Norway are afraid of the sound of a horn, on which account shepherds, shepherdesses, farmers, travellers, &c. always take care to supply themselves with those sonorous instruments, in order to drive away those destroyers from their flocks and herds.

Various methods are taken, and snares laid, to destroy wolves: they are shot, poisoned, blown up with trains of gunpowder, taken in pits dug in the ground, and covered over with boughs, shot with spring-guns, &c. When any person digs a pit in order to entrap wolves and bears, he is obliged by law to give intimation of it through the whole district, lest any traveller, or other person, should, by accident, pass that way, and fall into it.

The lynx, called, in Latin, *lupus cervarius*, which, in English, is a wolf-hart, has been supposed to be of the shape of a wolf, and the colour of a hart. Others have thought that it was engendered between a wolf and a leopard, which is a great mistake, for he is nothing like a wolf; and that in which he resembles a leopard and a hart, is so common to many other animals, that it is very probable he has the name of *lupus cervarius*, because he pursues the harts in the same manner as a wolf does a sheep.

The muzzle of a lynx is not long and pointed like a wolf, but blunt and short like a cat; and the length of his head is about seven inches, his neck four, and his body twenty-four inches, without including the tail, which is eight in length. His height, from the extremity of the fore feet to the top of the back, is twenty inches; and from the bottom of his hind feet to the upper parts of his buttocks, twenty-three. He has five claws on the fore foot, and four on those behind. Each toe is armed with long, crooked, sharp claws, which are sometimes concealed like those of a cat.

The back is of a reddish colour, spotted with black; and the belly, and the inside of the thighs, are of a grey ash-colour, spotted likewise with black, but in a different manner; for the spots on the belly are larger, not quite so black, and more distant from each other, than those on the back, legs, and paws, whose outsides are reddish. However, all the hair is of three different colours; for the root is of a greyish brown, the middle red, or of an ash-colour, and the ends white. But this whiteness at the ends takes up so small a part of the hair, that it is no hindrance from seeing the principal colour, which is that in the middle; and it only makes the surface of the body appear as if it was silvered over.

The glutton is not larger than a turnspit dog, and is shaped very much like him. His lustre is beautifully variegated, and has a most admirable lustre like damask; being so fine and precious that he is shot with blunt arrows, that the skin may not be injured. This animal is so ravenous, and hath such an insatiable appetite, that he will devour a carcase nearly as big as himself. When he is so overgorged as to be quite uneasy to himself, he searches out two trees that grow near together, and squeezes himself between them till he exonerates his stomach; and during this operation he is so sick that his fierceness subsides, and he may be easily taken.

The lerning, or Norway mouse, is, in shape, like a common mouse, or rather like a dormouse, only his tail is less; he is about five inches in length, and covered with thin hair of various colours. These creatures do great mischief in pastures and corn-fields; and when they die, they infect the air in such a manner that it causes dangerous diseases.

The ermine, or hermelin, is a kind of weazel, and usually resides in the clefts of rocks, or among a heap of stones. It is all over white, except the end of the tail, which is black. It is greyish about the eyes, and there is a spot of the same colour in the middle of the head, as also between the shoulders, and on the tail. However, the colour varies according to the season of the year, being white in winter, and brown in summer. None are ignorant of the high esteem in which the skin of this little animal is held throughout all Europe. It is the softest and

and the most beautiful of all furs; but then it loses its beautiful whiteness by age, and turns a yellow or cream colour. It feeds upon rats, mice, moles, and such like; but it is remarkable in those kept in cages, that they will never touch any kind of flesh until it be putrid.

The marten is of the size of a cat, but somewhat longer. The ears are short, broad, and roundish; the eyes shine in the night like those of a cat, and the nose is somewhat prominent; the upper jaw is blunt, the tongue long and smooth, and covered with sharp papillæ, but they are soft, and the points are turned backwards. The teeth are very white, unequal and rough; and it has whiskers like those of a cat: the feet are divided into five toes, and are hairy all over; they are united half way by a membrane, and what is called the great toe is the shortest, and at a distance from the rest. The tail is covered with long hair, which makes it seem thicker than it really is.

In some places the common marten delights to be among buildings, such as castles, churches, barns, hay-lofts, stacks of wood, pigeon-houses, and the like. He is a great enemy to domestic fowls and pigeons, and will kill a great number whenever he can come at them. He is also very fond of eggs, and will carry them from one place to another without breaking. The dung is said to have a musky smell, by which means their haunts may be found out. Martens sleep in the day time, and go abroad in the night in quest of their prey. They are hunted in some places by a sort of dogs, that seem to be designed by nature for that purpose. Perhaps they may be the same as our fitchet dogs, so called from their hunting the pole-cat, or fitchet. These animals are hunted for their furs, which are very valuable, and they are in season in the beginning of the winter.

The flesh of the marten is said to be good eating. In some places they make use of the dung as a perfume; and some pretend it is good to dissolve the swelling of the glands. The gall, when mixed with fenel-water, is recommended to take out spots in the eyes.

Some authors distinguish martens into two kinds, the domestic marten with a white throat, and the wood-marten, that is to be found in the forests consisting of small trees, in which they make their nests, much in the same manner as squirrels. This may be known from the former in having a yellow throat, and the fur on the rest of the body more of a fallow colour. Some call it the golden marten, and its skin is much more valuable than that of the other.

Besides the before mentioned animals, Norway is productive of foxes and squirrels. The skins of the foxes are greatly valued, their fur being either white, red or black; but the latter is the most estimable. The Norway foxes have the common character for cunning which the foxes of other countries have; nor do the squirrels seem to be behind hand with them in point of sagacity.

The reptiles and insects of this country are both various and numerous.

The west wind brings many insects that greatly hurt vegetation; and the waters are productive of insects that are exceedingly injurious to the fisheries, by destroying the fish. The most particular of the latter is the little sea-horse, which exceeds nine inches in length; and, in the head, snout, and mane, is somewhat like a horse. It is about the thickness of a man's thumb, and the body is full of clefts and furrows. The snout is a sort of tube, with a hole at the bottom, to which there is a cover that he can open and shut at pleasure. The upper part of the body seems to have seven sides; but below the vent it resembles a figure consisting of four sides. The eyes are small and prominent, and between them are two high tubercles. The tail ends in a point, and is generally very much bent. Behind the eyes, where the gills are placed in other fish, there are two fins which look like ears, and above them are two holes; but there are no gills, either outwardly or

inwardly. The whole body seems to be composed of gristly rings, on the intermediate membranes of which several small prickles are placed. Their colour is a dark green, but towards the tail inclining to black. The belly is marked with spots of a whitish blue. It is taken in the Mediterranean, and also in the Western Ocean.

Norway abounds in most of the fowls and birds common to, and well known in, European countries.

The sea-coasts are overspread with innumerable flights of Aquatic fowls, that build their nests, and hatch their young, among the cliffs, rocks, neighbouring islands, &c. and feed on fishes, insects, and seaweeds. Among these are astonishing numbers of wild-ducks, geese, and alks: the latter are peculiar to the country, build in the most inaccessible rocks, fly in such numbers as even to darken the air, and, with their wings, make a surprising noise, that somewhat resembles the rising of a tempest. Many other birds build in the cliffs and mountains, though not in such vast numbers; and the Norwegian peasants, who reside near the sea coasts, are employed, at a certain season of the year, in climbing the rocks at the most imminent danger of their lives. But their skill and intrepidity, in general, surmount every obstacle; and the birds they make prize of are to them very valuable, as the flesh and eggs furnish them with food, and the down and feathers sell to great advantage. An ingenious writer, in speaking of the Norwegian methods of bird-catching, says, "In some of the Nordland districts the farmers train dogs to spring the shore, and strand birds from their holes, which are almost inaccessible. These are auxiliaries to the bird-men or climbers, who either scramble up the face of perpendicular rocks, with most astonishing courage and dexterity, or they are lowered down by ropes, sometimes above 100 fathoms over projecting precipices. Some of the birds will allow themselves to be seized in their nests; others are taken in a net fixed to the end of a pole, which the bird-man applies to the mouths of the holes from whence they take their flight. In climbing up the rocks two bird-men tie themselves together with a rope of a moderate length. The first being pushed up by the other's pole to a proper standing-place or projection, fixes himself to the rock, and the second clambers up, assisted by the rope which is tied round the waist of his fellow. In this manner they proceed alternately, till they arrive at the birding-places. But sometimes, in spite of all their skill and precaution, one slips, and dragging the other after him, both perish. Some persons also lose their lives yearly in the other operation of descending from the summits; loose fragments of the rock being moved in the descent, sometimes fall upon and kill the bird-man; and sometimes the rope being cut by the sharp-pointed stones, he is precipitated and dashed to pieces among the rocks.

Two of the Norwegian birds are known by the names of the north-wind-fowl and south-wind-fowl: the former is of a grey colour, smaller than a starling, and makes a very uncommon noise previous to the blowing of the north wind; and the latter never appears in Norway but as a fore-runner of a south wind; hence they both receive their appellations.

The trier, or cock of the wood, is the principal of the game fowls, and the largest of all the eatable birds in the country; it resembles a wild Turkey-cock in the bill and feet, has black or dark grey feathers, and red round the eyes.

The Norwegian eagle is of two species, the water and land eagle. The water eagle is the largest, and lives chiefly on the produce of the seas and rivers. The land eagle preys upon land animals, such as sheep, hares, lambs, kids, &c. Independent of which he kills many birds, and has sometimes been known to destroy children.

About the latter end of autumn the Norway swallows try to conceal themselves among the reeds and bushes in fresh-water lakes, where they remain all the winter

in a state of insensibility, and revive again in the spring. The peasants and fishermen frequently find whole flocks of them in this benumbed condition, coupled together, with their legs and bills entangled. If brought into a warm apartment they feel the enlivening warmth, and, in about half an hour's time, begin to move; soon after they flutter, and even begin to fly about; but, within the space of an hour, they drop down dead; which is owing to their being prematurely waked from their lethargy, or revived before the natural time.

The Norwegian seas abound with fish, among which is a species of the shark called haac-mœren, which is ten fathoms in length, and whose liver is so fat as to yield three casks of train oil.

The helleflynder is a prodigious large kind of turbot, which, upon various occasions, appears to have exhibited symptoms of revenge against mankind.

The whalebone, or blubber-whale, which we have already described in our account of Greenland, is likewise found in the Norwegian seas, as are great numbers of sperma-cæti whales.

In January, 1762, a sperma-cæti whale was brought into Greenland dock by a trading vessel. Those who were concerned in taking it, give the following account of this fish, and the manner in which they killed it.

As they were going through the Hope they saw something floating at a distance, which appeared to them like the mast of a ship; but as they approached it, they discovered it to be a large fish, and, upon seeing it cast up a great quantity of water, concluded it was a whale. They chased him ashore below the Hope-Point, and went off to him in their boats. He seemed a motionless lump, his head and tail being concealed in the water. They first pierced the prominent parts; and, having dug a hole twelve inches deep, a great torrent of blood issued forth. Upon this they withdrew to a distance, and soon after the boat had passed him (as the water was deep enough over his tail) he struck the ground with such violence as to force up stones and mud to a great height in the air. They waited about three quarters of an hour, and then he expired with the most horrible groans. After this they fastened a cable to his body, and at last brought him to Greenland-dock, where he was seen by several thousands of people.

They took out of his head eight puncheons of sperma-cæti, which lay between the eyes and the spout-hole, in different cells in the brain. Its extreme length was 54 feet, and its breadth 14; the lower jaw was 10 feet, and the length of the penis eight; the tail measured 15 feet.

Amongst a valuable collection of curious anatomical figures in this metropolis is the skeleton of a whale of this kind. Those who shew this curiosity say, that it will contain thirty people in its head, and fifty in its chest; and that twelve hogheads of sperma-cæti oil were taken out of its upper jaw, or rather that part of the head above it, which was entirely composed of flesh and oil.

This whale was thrown ashore on the Isle of Thanet, Feb. 2, 1762, and measures, from the snout to the tail-fin, 72 feet. The upper jaw, which appears to be one solid bone, is 16 feet long, and six broad at the top, where it is widest, and from whence it grows narrower to the end of the snout, which terminates in a point. Along the middle of it runs a deep round groove, through which is sucked up the water, which he afterwards discharged at the spout-hole. From the top of this jaw proceeds a large thick bone, which turns upwards almost perpendicularly to the height of about four feet, and forms, as it were, part of a kind of skull. The under jaw is not near so wide as the upper, herein being just the reverse of the toothless whale. At the distance of about eight feet from the snout it divides and becomes forked, in order to receive in the cavity a protuberance of the upper jaw, which seems exactly to fit it. This jaw had two rows of teeth. The upper jaw

has no teeth; but, instead thereof, there is a groove or socket to receive those of the lower; so that, when the mouth was shut, they must have resembled so many pointed weapons in a sheath. The sockets of the eyes, which are of an oval form, and placed almost at the further part of the jaws, measure about eighteen inches over. Hence what is told us by some writers, that the chrystalline humour of the eye in this fish is not bigger than a pea, must appear to common reason as a fable; for we must not suppose that nature is so unequal in her proportions. Beyond the sockets of the eyes are the two fin bones, which are very thick, five feet long, and two feet three inches in the broadest part. There are eleven ribs on each side, the largest of which is ten inches in circumference. The ribs form a cavity eight feet wide within the body of the fish, and in which were contained the heart, lungs, &c. The back-bone is at much the same distance from the floor, by which the ribs are supported. The back-bone, which is three feet ten inches thick, (measured in the round part only, for the the upper part of it is closely set, throughout the whole length of it, with spinal bones, like those of a hog,) and the tail fins, which extend about 15 feet, compose the rest of this skeleton.

Though many parts of this skeleton seem much decayed, probably owing, in a great measure, to the injuries it must have unavoidably received in being removed from place to place, it is nevertheless highly worthy the attention of those who delight in natural curiosities. The particulars, as related above, were lately taken by one of the authors of this work.

Seals abound about the coast of Norway; they reside in caverns and rocks in the sea, but go on shore twice a year, to bring forth their young. They are easily killed by the fishermen, who strike them over the nose with large sticks; after which the fat is flead off with the skin; the latter being sprinkled with salt, and rolled up singly, and the former deposited in casks for train oil.

The sea scorpion is a fish about four feet long, with a head larger than the whole body, of a hideous aspect, wide mouth, enormous jaws, and small scales, of a reddish colour. Its bite is poisonous, and it is an exceeding voracious creature.

The sea devil is about six feet in length, but the head makes full one half of the fish. The body suddenly tapers into a sharp-pointed tail; the eyes are large, and the jaws wide and horrible, set with different rows of sharp teeth; the tongue is likewise furnished with a kind of teeth, or sharp protuberances, so that the bite is terrible; and all round the under jaw, which projects beyond the upper, there are hanging slips, or gristly furs, of about four inches in length. This fish is extremely voracious, destroying innumerable other fishes of various species and sizes; and if he can seize upon a man that is bathing, he is sure to kill and devour him.

Salmon swarm in these seas, are caught in great quantities, and highly esteemed all over Europe.

The salmon is a very beautiful fish, and is every where in great esteem. The female may be distinguished from the male, by having a longer and more hooked snout, in having scales that are not quite so bright, and having its body speckled over with dark brown spots. Likewise the belly is flatter; the flesh is more dry, and not so red; nor yet is the taste so agreeable.

The flesh of this fish is not so red when boiled, as when raw or salted. It is tender, flaky, and luscious for which reason it satisfies sooner, and is harder of digestion, though generally preferred to that of other fish. About the time of spawning it grows more insipid, and loses a great deal of its lively colour. Some begin to be out of season about the beginning of July and others much later; which may be known by their falling away, their losing their beautiful spots, and by their colour, inasmuch, that when they are quite out of season, they look like fish of a different kind.

The salmon-fry, called, in some parts, a salmon smelt, is by most thought to be the offspring of a fish

ly salmon, which has been forcibly detained from visiting the salt water: it is agreeable enough to the eye, though its taste is very ordinary and insipid. The salmon chuses the rivers for its abode about six months in the year, entering the fresh water about February or March, in some places, where they continue to the autumnal season, at which time they cast their spawn, and soon after return to the sea. In general the salt water contributes most to their growth, and the fresh renders them fat.

When the time of spawning comes, the female makes a hole in a gravelly bottom, like a kind of nest, of her own dimensions; which done, she discharges her spawn and retires. Then the male, or milter, advances and covers the spawn with its belly, emitting, at the same time, a whitish fluid like milk. After this the female returns, and they both endeavour to cover their brood with gravel, in which they work with their noses like hogs.

They then return to the deep to recover their strength, which they usually do in about twenty days.

The salmon has different names, according to its different ages; being in the first year called smelts, in the second sprods, in the third morts, in the fourth fork-tails, in the fifth half-fish, and in the sixth, at which time they are thought to have attained their proper growth, they are judged worthy of the name of salmon. When they are largest they weigh near forty pounds.

The herring is from six inches to a foot in length. That which distinguishes this fish from all others, is a scaly line that runs along the belly from the head to the tail. The colour on the belly and sides is of a shining silver; besides, the scales are large, and come regularly off. It has no spots, and the belly is sharp like a wedge, with red eyes. The scales are large in proportion to the body.

A herring dies immediately after it is taken out of the water, whence the proverb arises, "As dead as a herring." The flesh is every where in great esteem, being fat, soft, and delicate, especially if it be dressed soon as caught; for then it is incomparably better than on the next day. There are vast quantities of these fish taken, salted, smoke-dried, and consumed all over Europe.

Herrings are distinguished into six different sorts; as the fat herring, which is the largest and thickest of all, and will keep longer than any; the meat herring, which is likewise large, but not so thick or so fat as the former; the night herring, which is of a middling size; the pluck, which has received some damage from the nets; the shotten herring, which has lost its roe; and the copshen, which, by some accident or other, has lost its head.

These useful fishes annually visit the western coast of Norway in such amazing swarms as to exceed all belief. The innumerable shoals that emerge from their shelter under the ice, towards the north pole, divide themselves into three bodies, about the latitude of Iceland. One of these directs its course westward, steering round the Hebrides, and coast of Scotland, towards Newfoundland; the second steers towards the coast of Great Britain; and the third, coasting about Norway, passes the Sound into the Baltic.

The herring and cod are driven in great shoals upon the coast of Norway, by the great herring whales; who, not daring to venture in among the rocks, or between the islands, remain about six weeks on the back of the great sand-bank parallel to the shore, extending about 30 miles in length, in order, as is supposed, to watch the return of the shoals. But though the herring whale is thus stopped in his pursuit, the sharks, porpoises, and other smaller fishes of prey, can easily enter between the channels, and among the rocks near the shore, and these continue the pursuit in such a manner, as to drive the cods and herrings into every little creek and inlet, and even to the very margin of the water; so that innumerable quantities may be easily taken. Se-

veral hundred ship loads of pickled herrings are yearly exported from Bergen only, besides the great quantity consumed at home by the common people.

The largest and fattest herrings appear upon the coast from Christmas to Candlemas, at which season the country people assemble upon the shore in great numbers, with their boats, casks, salt, fishing-tackle, &c. In the compass of one mile near 300 boats are daily employed, for a month together, in fishing. The nets are about 20 feet in length, and, in each, the fishermen will often catch near 5000 herrings. The fattest and best are pickled for exportation; but the worst sort are consumed in the country. The cod, ling, kabe-lian and forsk, are caught in strong nets of 400 fathoms in length, in 50 or 60 fathom water: then being pickled with French or Spanish salt, or dried by various methods, they are, in general, exported to Bremen, Hamburg, Amsterdam, &c. The Norwegian cod and herring fisheries employ and maintain an incredible number of people.

The sea produces a great variety of shell-fish. Of these the most particular are the pearl-muscle, the right of which fishery appertains to the King of Denmark; and is carried on at his expence. The pearls which are taken annually, about Midsummer, become the property of the queen, as part of the regalia of Norway; and some of these are very little inferior to the oriental pearls.

The star-fish is commonly about nine inches in length, and sometimes twelve. The whole face, and the covers of the gills, are very rough, with a sort of warts or tubercles, some of which are prickly.

That extraordinary production of nature which is ranked among fishes, and called the sea-nettle, is of two kinds, one of which comprehends those that always remain fixed in one place, like sea plants; and the other contains those that change their place.

The wandering sea-nettles have nothing common with the preceding, except in the name, and they have different appellations in different places, as also according to their sizes. When they are thrown upon the sea-coast they appear to be quite motionless, which perhaps may be owing to the shocks they have received against stones or the sand, which may be sufficient to deprive them of life; for it is certain they are a sort of animals.

The Northern Ocean produces some very extraordinary animals, as the merman, mermaid, great sea-snake, and kraken or korven.

The mermaid and merman are sea animals, that bear some resemblance to the human form. In the year 1719 one of the males of this species was found dead on a point of land in Nordland. His colour was of a dark grey; the face resembled that of a man, with a large mouth, and flat nose; the arms were attached to the sides by a thin membrane, and terminated in paws like those of the sea-calf. The body tapered into a fish's tail, like that of a porpoise, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mermaid is formed in the same manner, bating the difference of sex, which is distinguished like that of the human race. These creatures have been seen in many parts of the North Sea, have appeared of various magnitudes, from two feet to three fathoms.

In the year 1723 three fishermen of Elsinour, in Denmark, being examined, upon oath, before the privy counsellor Frederick Van Gram, declared that, in the month of July, in calm weather, between Hveen and Saedland, they approached, in their boat, something that floated on the surface like a dead body, which lay without motion till they were within seven or eight fathoms of it, when it sunk instantaneously, and rose again nearly in the same place. There he stood near a quarter of an hour staring at them, and was seen above the water to his breast. Being terrified at the sight of this monster they began to row away. He then blew up his cheeks, uttered a kind of muttering roar, and dived under water. He appeared like an old man, with

with broad shoulders, and a small head, covered with short, black, curled hair. His eyes were hollow, his face was meagre and weather-beaten, and his skin was coarse and hairy. One of these deponents further declared, that, about twenty years before, he had seen a mermaid, with long hair, and large breasts.

"The marmie, or marmate, belongs to the same class, and is, perhaps, the young of this species. It is formed of different sizes, and often caught on hooks by the fishermen of Norway. Some are no bigger than infants half a year old, and others are as large as children of three years.

"The sea-snake is peculiar to the Norwegian seas, where it has been seen by many hundred people, mariners, fishermen, and others. In the year 1746 a mariner, belonging to Bergen, shot at a sea-snake, which immediately disappeared; and when the boat was rowed near the place, the water appeared tinged with blood. The head of this animal, which it held at least two feet above the surface of the water, was of a greyish colour, and resembled the head of a horse. The mouth was very large, and black; the eyes were of the same colour; and a long white main hung down from its neck, which floated on the sea. Besides the head, they saw seven or eight coils of this snake, about the distance of a fathom one from the other.

"In Egede's journal of the Greenland mission, we find that, on the 6th of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea monster raised itself to a most surprising height out of the water: that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale: that the body seemed to be covered with scales: the skin was uneven and wrinkled; and the lower part was formed like a snake. It plunged itself back in the water, and then raised its tail above the surface a whole ship's length from the head.

"Though the exact dimensions of the sea-snake cannot be ascertained, it may be concluded, from the concurring testimony of those who have seen it at sea, that it is 100 fathoms in length, and that its body is as large as a hoghead. That its sense of smelling is very acute, the fishermen conjecture from the circumstance of its avoiding the scent of castor, a quantity of which they therefore provide themselves with when they go out to fish in the summer; and when they meet the sea-snake they throw a small portion of it overboard.

"But the most surprising creature in this sea, and, perhaps, in the whole world, is the kraken, or korven, an animal of the polypus kind, but seemingly a mile and a half in circumference. The Norwegian fishermen sometimes, in a hot summer's day, find no more than 20 or 30 fathoms water where the depth used to be 80 or 100; and here they catch great plenty of cod and ling. They know the kraken is below them, and that they are fishing upon his back. When they perceive, by their lines, that the water grows more and more shallow, they judge he is rising slowly to the surface, and row away with great expedition. At a proper distance they lie upon their oars, and, in a few minutes, part of him appears above the water, representing a number of small islands and sand-banks covered with sea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of fish, that leap about, and roll off his sides into the water. At length a great number of pellucid antennæ rise upon his back, as large and high as the masts of moderate vessels. By means of these instruments, or tentacula, he moves himself, and gathers in his food, which consists of small fishes. After he has remained a little time at the surface, he begins to sink again gradually, and this motion produces a dangerous swell and whirlpool in the water. In all probability the floating islands, which have been described by so many voyage writers, were no other than the back of this huge monster."

In the holy scriptures the whalebone, or blubber whale, the sperma-cæti whale, the great sea-snake, and the kraken, seem to have been all described under the general name of leviathan; for that word is of universal acceptance, and implies not a particular fish only, but

a huge sea monster, or prodigious large fish. For want of knowing this, those beautiful passages in the book of Job, where leviathan is described, have been frequently misunderstood. Those parts (as finely paraphrased by the celebrated Dr. Young) which apply to the whalebone, or blubber whale, we have already given in our account of Greenland. The lines which suit the sperma-cæti whale, as rendered by the same reverend author, are these:

At length my huge leviathan shall rise,
Boast all his strength, and spread his wond'rous size.
Whose heart sustains him to draw near? Behold
Destruction yawns. His spacious jaws unfold,
And, marshall'd round the wide expanse, disclose
Teeth edg'd with death, and crowding rows on rows.
What hideous fangs on either side arise!
And what a deep abyss between them lies!
Meet with thy lance, and with thy plummet sound,
The one how long, the other how profound!

Those suitable to the great sea-snake are as follow:

When late awak'd he rears him from the floods,
And, stretching forth his stature to the clouds,
Writhes in the sun aloft his scaly height,
And strikes the distant hills with transient light.
Far round are fatal damps of terror spread:
The mighty fear, nor blush to own their dread.

The following lines are applicable to the kraken, that astonishing animal, hitherto unconquered by the most subtle, and dreaded by the most courageous:

His like earth bears not on her spacious face;
Alone, in nature, stands his dauntless race.
For utter ignorance of fear renown'd,
In wrath he rolls his baleful eyes around;
Makes ev'ry swollen, disdainful heart subside,
And holds dominion o'er the sons of pride.

SECTION III.

*Descent, Language, and Religion of the Norwegians.
Description of the distinct Governments or Provinces of
the Kingdom.*

THE people of Norway derive their origin from the ancient Normanni, a barbarous race, who annoyed great part of the coasts of Europe with piratical armaments, in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries. Many Danish, English, Dutch, Scotch, and German families, have since settled in this country, and now form a considerable part of the inhabitants.

Their language, in most places, is the same with that of Iceland, which proves them to be of the same origin: but, in the civilized parts of the country, the language differs but little from that of Denmark.

The Christian religion is said to have been planted here about the middle of the tenth century: the reformation was established by the Danes: so that Lutheranism is the national religion. They have an archbishop at Drontheim, and a bishop in each of the four following towns, namely, Bergen, Staffanger, Hammer, and Obsolo, otherwise called Christianburgh.

Justice is administered here in several courts, from which appeals lie to the supreme court, which is settled in the capital of the kingdom, where the viceroy resides, who governs this state with an absolute power.

Norway is divided into four governments, or prefectorships, which are those of Aggerhus, Bergen, Drontheim, and Wardhus; besides that of Babus, which is subject to Sweden; and the several islands depending on Norway. Of all these we shall give a distinct account.

The province of Aggerhus, in Latin Aggerhusia Præfectura, is the south-east part of Norway, and is situated

situated between the province of Bergen on the west, from which it is separated by vast mountains; Dalecarlia and Bahus, which belong to Sweden, on the east; the mouth of the Baltic, called the Categate, on the south; and the province of Drontheim on the north. Its extent, from south to north, is about 300 miles, and from east to west, in the south part, about 120; but it grows narrower northward, till it ends in a point. The land is mountainous and woody; but the vallies are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which pass through the country, and fall into the Baltic. It is divided into six particular governments, viz. Agdeslinden, Hallingdal, Hammer, Hennemark, Rommersikir, and Tallemark. There are here several sea-ports; particularly Fleckeren, where the fishing-trade affords a pretty considerable income.

The most considerable cities and towns of this province are Obselo, Anflo, or Christiana, in Latin Anfloa, or Anloga Civitas, or Christiania. The chief city of this province is seated at the bottom of a narrow bay, and is 30 miles distant from the Baltic, and about 110 from Schagen-Cape in Jutland, to the north. It is the seat of the sovereign court of justice, where sentences are pronounced in the presence of the governor of the province of Aggerhus, and of the viceroy. This city owes its foundation to king Harold, cotemporary with Sweno, king of Denmark, surnamed Estritius, because he was the son of Margaret, surnamed Estrita, daughter to Sweno II. and sister to Canute the Great. Harold kept his court here in the middle of the eleventh century.

When the Swedes were besieging the fort of Aggerhus, in the year 1567, the Danes, in order to take from them all pretences for staying in the country, burnt the city of Obselo. A peace was concluded between them three years after; and Frederick II. of Denmark, under whose reign this town was burnt, dying in 1588, his successor Christian IV. rebuilt it in 1614, and called it Christiana, by which name it has been generally known ever since. It is the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Drontheim. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Alward, and in it is shewn the sword of Haquin, one of their ancient kings, the hilt of which is of chrysal, and a great curiosity for art, as well as antiquity. This is a place of good trade for fir-timber, pitch, &c. Many mackarel are caught here; and much pearl is found: of the latter, Henricus Arnoldi, a Dane, gives the following account: their shells are like those of muscles, but larger, and the fish like an oyster, which produces a great cluster of eggs, like those of cray-fish, some white, and some black. These eggs, when ripe, are cast out, and grow like the shell, from whence they came: but sometimes it happens, that one or two of these eggs stick fast to the side of the matrix, and are not voided with the rest: these being fed by the fish, in time grow into pearls of different sizes, and imprint a mark, both in the fish and shell, of the same figure with themselves. In this city the nuptial rites between James VI. of Scotland, afterwards king of England, and Anne, the daughter of Frederick II. king of Denmark, were solemnized, on the 23d day of November 1589, that prince having taken a voyage thither, upon the lady's being driven back by contrary winds, when she first set out for Scotland.

Aggerhus, or Aggerhuslor, in Latin Aggerhusia, from which the whole province takes its name, lies on the bottom of the same bay, about 15 miles from Christiana, to the south-west. It has a strong castle, memorable for the brave resistance it made against the Swedish army in the year 1567, which besieged it hotly for 18 weeks together, but was at last beat off, and forced shamefully to retire.

Friderickshall, or Friderickstadt, in Latin Fridirico-stadium, stands on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Glammen, which rises in the mountains, in the province of Drontheim, and having passed through Aggerhus, falls here into the sea, and thereby affords this city a pretty good trade. It is about 50 miles distant from the town of Aggerhus towards the south-east, well fortified, and of such importance, that it is deemed

the key of this kingdom. Charles XII. king of Sweden, sat down before it in the beginning of December, 1718, and was killed there by a cannon ball, the 11th of the same month, as he was viewing the trenches.

Saltzberg is a small town on the river Drammen, which falls into the bay of Christiana, from which city it is about 15 miles distant to the north. It has a pretty considerable trade from the neighbouring copper and iron mines.

Tongsberg stands on the left shore of the bay of Christiana, and is about 20 miles distant from the city of that name to the south.

Skeen, or Scheen, a few miles from Tongsberg, stands on the Categate. Both these towns are places of good trade, by means of the beforementioned mines. A silver one was discovered in the neighbourhood under the reign of Christian IV. but it appears that it is not a rich one; is not worked at present.

Hammer, or Hammar, stands on the eastern bank of a long and narrow lake, formed by a river which, above 40 miles lower, falls into the Glammen. It is 100 miles distant from Christiana, to the north-east, and was formerly a bishop's see, which has been removed to Christiana. It is divided into the Greater and Lesser Hammer, which are parted by a small canal, or arm of the lake.

Hollen, seated on the lake of Nordsee, 15 miles from Tongsberg to the north-west, is remarkable for its church, which is cut out of the rock called Vear, and has a burying-place on the top of it. It is very ancient, and supposed, by Olaus Wormius, to be originally a temple of the heathens.

The province or government of Bergen, or Berghenhus, comprizes the most southerly, and also the most westerly part of Norway, and is surrounded by the sea on the south, south-west, west, and north. It has the government of Drontheim on the north-east, and that of Aggerhus on the east. Its extent from Cape Naze, in the south, to lat. 62 deg. 30 min. where the government of Drontheim begins, is about 290 miles; but its greatest breadth, from east to west, is not above 90 miles, and in many places much less. It is divided into the governments of Bergen, properly so called, and Stavinger, which are again subdivided into lesser districts, or præfectures.

The chief towns here are Bergen, an ancient and famous sea-port, mentioned by Pomponius Mela, and Pliny; it stands on a crooked bay called Jetteford, into which the entrance is by a narrow streight named Carmesundt, bordered on each side with high rocks for several miles together. This town is 137 miles distant from Christiana to the north-west. The bay here is so deep, that vessels of above 400 tons can enter it, and come to load and unload before the merchants warehouses. The inhabitants are partly natives of this country, and partly Germans and Danes, whom the convenience of the town for trade has drawn thither, this being the principal mart and magazine for several merchandizes; divers sorts of fine furs, vast quantities of hides, tallow, fir-timber, &c. being brought thither from the neighbouring provinces, and shipped off to foreign parts. The inhabitants drive also a considerable trade in stock-fish, which are taken on these coasts, and in the lakes, in January, and dried in the open air. The privileges granted by the king of Denmark to strangers make them flock to this town, and import thither those necessaries of life which the country does not produce, as wheat, rye, biscuits, beer, wine, brandy, &c. which they exchange for the merchandizes abovementioned. This is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim. The churches here are pretty well built, as are also all the edifices raised by the merchants of the Hans-Towns, and particularly their exchange. The common people's houses were formerly of timber only, and covered with turf, so that the town was several times reduced to ashes, but since the year 1702, when it was almost entirely burnt down, the houses have been rebuilt with stone, so that it is now reckoned

the largest, most beautiful, and most populous town in Norway, and is the capital of the whole kingdom. On the west-side of the town stands a royal citadel, in which the governor resides, and which serves also to defend the harbour.

There is at Bergen a factory called the Cloyster, in which a community of merchants live, who are stiled Monks, though they wear no particular habit, and have nothing in common with monks, except that they are not married.

Stavanger, or Staffanger, the chief town of the district of the same name, stands in the bay called Buckenfiord, which is very spacious, full of small islands, and 80 miles distant from Bergen to the south, and 100 from Christiana to the west. The harbour is spacious and safe, and would have a great trade were it not for the neighbourhood of Bergen. Though the town be but small, it is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim. It is the residence of the governor of this district, who is subject to the governor of Bergen. The town is defended by the strong fortrefs of Doefwyck, which stands to the seaward, about two miles from Stavanger. To the bishoprick of Stavanger belongs Tyle-Marchia, whose name gave rise to the opinion of Procopius and Ortelius, that Scandinavia was the ancient Thule. The district of Stavanger is the most temperate, the best peopled, and best cultivated in all Norway; yet it has no other town of any note but Stavanger.

Drontheim, Trontheim, Dronthem, or Dronthen, is the largest government of Norway. It lies along the coast of the North Sea, being about 500 miles in length, from south to north. It has the North Sea on the west, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Bergen on the south, and on the east it is separated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the 61st to the 69th deg. of lat. Its greatest breadth, from east to west, is not above 120 miles, and in many places it is much less. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; so that, though it be large, the towns are not very considerable. It is divided into two parts, namely, the government of Drontheim, properly so called, where is the city of that name, and seven small bailiwicks, and the sub-government of Salten, which contains seven other small districts, or vathies, on the sea-coast. This whole province was yielded to the Swedes in 1658; but the king of Denmark recovered it in 1660, by the treaty of Copenhagen. The vathies of Nomenhall, Helligeland, or Halgoland, Frosten, Hinder, Hero, and some others, belonged formerly to this province, but were given up to the Swedes in 1645, by the treaty of Bromsbroe, together with the province of Jemmland, or Jemterland. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but along the sea-shore, till within 25 or 30 miles from it.

The most considerable towns here are Drontheim, or Nidrosia, formerly the capital of Norway: it is seated on the coast of the Northern Ocean, on a little gulph at the mouth of the river Nider, from whence it was anciently called Nidrosia. It is about 220 miles distant from Bergen to the north-east, and has a harbour pretty well frequented by small vessels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obstructed by rocks. It was formerly the residence of the kings of Norway; but the town being only built with timber, was several times burnt down, and is very much decayed. It is without ditches or fortifications, being only enclosed by a single wall. The castle is not strong, and sustained but a few days siege when the town was taken by the Swedes in 1658. The Danes re-took it the same year, after a siege of ten weeks. It is the see of an archbishop, being the only one in Norway. The cathedral church, dedicated to St. Olaus, was formerly a very magnificent building, but now lies almost in ruins, having been destroyed by fire in the year 1522. This town has a considerable trade, consisting in small masts, fir-deals, copper, iron, tar,

goats skins, &c. for which they import spices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheese, tobacco, coarse cloths, &c. The governor has his seat here, and resides chiefly in the castle.

The other towns of this province, viz. Leerstand, Stronden, Scoredale, Opdal, Ramsdael, and Solendael, are so small and inconsiderable, as to merit no particular description.

The province of Wardhus is bounded, on the north and west, by the ocean, on the east by Russian Lapland, on the south by Swedish Lapland, and on the south-west by the government of Drontheim. It is 310 miles in length, from east to west, 200 in breadth, from north to south, and is divided in two parts, viz.

The western, or maritime part, which is called Finland.

The eastern part, which is called Norwegian, or Danish Lapland.

The town of Wardhus, from whence this province hath its name, is the seat of a governor, but only consists of a castle, and a street of cottages, inhabited chiefly by fishermen.

The province of Bahus, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, is yet accounted a part of Norway, being its most southern province. It is 90 miles long, but not above 25 broad where widest, and only 10 in some places. It hath West Gothland to the south, Dalia on the east, the government of Aggerhus on the north, and the Categate on the west. The principal places are

Bahus, a strong castle, built on a small island made by the river Nora-Elf, which there receives the Gi-otha-Elf, and both together are called Trolhetta. It is 116 miles distant from Christiana; was built in 1309 by Haquin, the second king of Norway, and stands on a steep rock near the banks of the river. The kings of Denmark had fortified it after the modern fashion, but surrendered it to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roschiled.

Maelstrand, a strong built town on a rock in a kind of peninsula, about 10 miles below Bahus, is a place of great trade for fish, and hath a strong castle to guard it.

SECTION IV.

Persons, Employments, Amusements, Dispositions, Mode of living, Diseases, Dress, Buildings, Armament, Articles of Export and Import, Privileges, &c. of the Inhabitants of Norway.

THE Norwegians in general are tall, stout, robust, hardy and well made; hospitable, brave, and honest, but litigious. The women are finely shaped, comely, fair and obliging. The mountaineers are remarkably strong, as the tone of their nerves acquires great firmness by hard living, much labour, continual exercise, and being exposed from infancy to all the rigors of the cold season. Those who dwell in the maritime parts of the kingdom become excellent mariners, from the incessant practice of fishing and navigation. The peasants are usually their own handicraftsmen, that is, they are in general able to make, for the use of themselves and families, the following articles, viz. Hats, woollen cloths, linen cloths, stockings, shoes, iron work, joinery-work, carpentry-work, &c.

They are likewise excellent tanners, expert ship and boat-builders, and some of them make tolerable violins, and other musical instruments. Their general propensity, however, is to carve in wood, which they do in a most surprising manner, with only a common knife, which is likewise of their own making.

Their amusements are riding, wrestling, swimming, skating, climbing, shooting, blowing a horn, playing on the violin, thrumming upon a kind of guitar, and making verses. Indeed they are so fond of music, that they even play upon the violin at their funerals. The

The Norwegians, upon various occasions, have evinced their intrepidity; but while under the influence of rancour, their courage degenerates into brutality. They are always quarrelling with each other, and sometimes their quarrels have been known to rage from generation to generation, and to be transmitted from posterity to posterity; with particular injunctions from the parents to their children, to consider it as a family quarrel, and on that account to carry it on with the greatest implacability. The lowest class of people have their punctilios of honour, and when they conceive themselves affronted, send challenges to fight in single combat; but these duels being generally founded in malice, are carried to the most savage extremes, and degenerate into absolute butchery. When a combat of this kind is to be fought, the combatants fasten themselves together by hooks fixed to the extremities of their belts, and then fight furiously with their knives till one or both fall to the ground, either dead or mortally wounded. The common people, in many things, resemble the three nations now subordinate to the crown of Great Britain: like the Scotch, they have aspiring thoughts, which even difficulties cannot subdue; like the Irish, they cherish ideas of independence; and, like the Welch, they plume themselves upon their pedigrees.

The principal people of Norway live as luxuriously as the nature and commerce of the country will admit; but the peasants, in general, are frugal and temperate, except at the time of keeping any of their festivals.

The common bread is made of oatmeal, and formed into cakes like those of Scotland. In times of dearth they dry the bark of the fir-tree, or elm-tree, and grind it into a kind of flour, which they mix with a small portion of oatmeal, and thus compose a kind of substitute for bread.

In the maritime parts it is common to knead the roes of cod with oatmeal or barley-meal, and boil the composition for a pudding; and the liquor, which serves as a kind of soup, is enriched with a salt mackerel, or pickled herring.

Beef, mutton, or goats flesh, they pickle, smoke, or dry, for winter stock; but, in the summer, usually eat fresh fish, grouse, partridge, deer, hare, rein-deer, &c. Cheese they have all the year, and in common drink sour whey; but at Christmas, and other festivals, christenings, weddings, &c. they provide good store of strong ale; and, indeed, these are the only times in which they ever run into any excesses; for their usual temperance is such, that they are generally very long lived: a great number are to be found who are hearty and well after being turned of an hundred years of age. In the year 1733 four couples danced before his Danish majesty at Frederickshall, whose ages, when added together, exceeded 800 years.

Some few, by temp'rance taught, approaching slow
To distant fate, by easy journies go;
Gently they lay them down, as evening sheep
On their own woolly fleeces softly sleep.
So noiseless would I live, such death to find,
Like timely fruit not shaken by the wind,
But ripely dropping on the sapless bough,
And dying, nothing to myself would owe.
Thus daily changing, with a duller taste
Of lessening joys, I by degrees would haste;
Still quitting ground by unperceiv'd decay,
And steal myself from life, and melt away.

Some of the Norwegians, however, are subject to the gout, epilepsy, rheumatism, catarrhs, leprosy, scurvy, &c.

The peasants of this country dress in a wide, loose jacket, made of coarse cloth, with waistcoat and breeches of the same. On their heads they wear a slouched hat, or a cap decorated with ribbons: their summer shoes are without soles, but in winter they use leather buskins; and, besides these, they have snow shoes and skates to travel in the winter. A corps of

light troops, thus accoutered, are kept always in readiness for winter expeditions, in case of emergencies; and these travel with more speed than the swiftest horses.

The Norwegian peasant never wears a neckcloth, or closes his waistcoat, but upon certain occasions, choosing always to have his neck and breast bare, and suffers the snow to beat into his bosom. Round his waist he wears a leathern belt, adorned with brass plates, from which hangs a brass chain, that sustains a knife, gimeter, &c.

The women dress in jackets laced close about them; round their waists they wear girdles of leather, ornamented with silver; and about their necks silver chains, embellished with gilt medals; their caps and handkerchiefs, and, on certain occasions, their tresses are adorned with small plates and spangles of silver, brass, and tin; large rings, buttons, and a variety of other trinkets.

The public edifices of Norway are built with stone; the houses of the principal people with stone or brick; but the common people, in general, reside in wooden habitations.

The wooden houses are made of fir and pine-trees laid upon each other, and joined with mortices at the corners. Few of the farm-houses have either chimnies or windows; but a hole in the roof serves for both, as it lets out smoak, and lets in light. In summer time this hole is left quite open; but in winter it is covered with the transparent membrane of some animal, which admits the light, and at the same time is so placed, as not to impede the evaporation of the smoak. This membrane is occasionally fixed or removed by the means of a long pole, which pole every stranger, who enters the house, is obliged to go and touch, agreeable to an ancient custom. The roof is covered with the bark of birch trees, which is deemed incorruptible; and that is again coated with turf, from which the grass is cut every season. The ceiling, on the inside, is about eight feet from the ground; and being arched like a cupola, the smoak rolls about within the circular part till it finds a vent at the hole. Just beneath this aperture stands a table, surrounded with branches, and at the end a high seat for the master of the family, where, during meal times, he sits in great state; and, indeed, upon all occasions, assumes the appearance of dignity, puts on many consequential airs, and fancies himself a person of the utmost importance. It hath been the observation of many travellers, that the inhabitants of all conquered nations are much more proud than those to whom they are held in subordination; and that, as they are usually kept poor and illiterate, their vanity rises in proportion to their ignorance.

Of all the causes which conspire to blind
Man's erring judgment, and misguide the mind;
What the weak head with strongest bias rules
Is pride; the never-failing vice of fools.
What ever nature has in worth deny'd,
She gives in large recruits of needful pride:
For, as in bodies, so in souls, we find
What wants in blood and spirit's fill'd with wind.
Pride, where wit fails, steps in to our defence,
And fills up all the mighty void of sense.

The armament of Norway consists in about 30,000 land forces, and about 14,000 seamen; and the annual revenue amounts to 180,000*l*. The commodities exported are numerous, as wrought and unwrought copper, iron, lead, marble, mill-stones, cow-hides, goat-skins, fox-skins, seal-skins, bear-skins, beavers, martens, ermines, masts, deal boards, timber, herrings, cod, ling, salmon, lobsters, flounders, down, feathers, butter, tallow, train oil, juniper and other berries, salt, glass, tar, nuts, allum, vitriol, pot-ashes, &c. The commodities imported chiefly consist of luxurious articles.

Every freeholder in Norway enjoys the right of primogeniture, and power of redemption. It is very usual

usual to see a peasant inhabiting the same house which had been possessed 400 years by his ancestors. The odels-gads, or freehold, cannot be alienated by sale, or otherwise, from the right heir, called odels-mand. If he is not able to redeem the estate, he declares his incapacity every tenth year at the sessions: and if he,

or his heirs, to the third generation, should acquire wealth enough for that purpose, the possessor, at the time, must give up the possession.

The history of Norway is so blended with that of Denmark, that we shall give both together at the conclusion of the succeeding article.

C H A P. IV.

D E N M A R K.

DENMARK proper, anciently called Dania, consists of several islands, together with the peninsula of Jutland. Though not any one of these is separately called by the name of Denmark, they retain in general that appellation.

Jutland lies between the 54th and 59th deg. of north lat. and from the 8th to the 45th deg. of east long. extending from north to south near 240 miles; the breadth in some parts, not being above 24 miles, and in others comprizing near 180 miles. The German Ocean washes it on the northern or western parts; on the east it is bounded by the Categate, and Middle Fort Sound, or Lesser Belt; and on the south it is divided from the duchies of Lunenburg and Bremen by the river Elbe.

SECTION I.

Soil, Climate, &c.

THE soil varies greatly on the continent, and in the islands which forms this kingdom. In the former there are good pastures, but the latter are too sandy to be fruitful. The mountains are barren, but most of the plains exhibit marks of fertility.

It hath been observed, as a great natural defect in Denmark, that the king has not, in all his dominions, one navigable river for vessels of any considerable burthen: for the Eyder cannot be reckoned as such; and the Elbe is rather to be esteemed one of the confines and boundaries of his territories, than any ways belonging to him. There are some lakes here which afford a great quantity of fish. The forests are abundantly stocked with venison of all sorts, as stags, elks, and hares; as also wild boars. There is likewise great plenty of wild fowl.

The air in Denmark, though very cold, is not so sharp as in some places of Germany. Situated much more to the south, which may be ascribed to the sea flowing about it, the vapours of which melt and dissolve the nitrous particles, that are carried by the wind from the northern countries, before they arrive in this, by which means the sharpness of the air is very much abated. The gentle breezes, which blow from the sea, contribute also to make the air cooler in summer. However, in Denmark there are but two seasons of the year, winter and summer; the other two more agreeable ones, spring and autumn, not being commonly known; the spring never, and the autumn seldom; so that there is an immediate transition from extremity of heat to extremity of cold; and so, on the contrary, when winter is over, from cold to heat. During the three months of June, July, and August, the heat is much more intense than in England, and very sultry in the nights; but it is a gloomy heat; and people generally perceive some interposition of thick vapours between them and the sun. In Copenhagen, during these three months, they are constantly troubled with the plague of flies, which they endeavour to destroy by a poisonous water; upon the laying of which in their kitchens and chambers, whole bushels of dead flies are sometimes swept together in one room.

This country, in general, produces but little corn; and the vast number of barren mountains are great encumbrances and blemishes to the whole kingdom. The Eyder is the only stream worthy of the name of a river, which can be said properly to belong to Denmark. This rises near Sedgebourg, runs by Rensbourg, and disembogues itself into the sea at Tonmingen, after having divided Sleswic from Holstein.

A late traveller, speaking of the climate, says, he apprehends the year is more properly divided here into summer and winter, than, as with us, into four seasons. A short summer succeeds to the long series of cold and darkness, which environs them from October till April; and, during this period, they often experience very great heats for a few days, or sometimes weeks. Certainly man is much affected by physical causes; and one is not surprized to find the elegant arts chiefly confined to luxurious and southern climates, and faintly raising their heads amidst these snowy and inhospitable regions, where the inhabitants seem, in some degree, to partake of the asperities of their soil, and where royal munificence, however unbounded, can only raise a few sickly and straggling plants.

This account is forcibly illustrated by the following poetical description, which we insert as strikingly picturesque. These lines are addressed by Mr. Philips to the Earl of Dorset, his patron.

From frozen climes, and endless tracks of snow,
From streams that northern winds forbid to flow,
What present shall the muse to Dorset bring?
Or how, so near the pole, attempt to sing?
The hoary winter here conceals from sight,
All pleasing objects that to verse invite.
The hills and dales, and the delightful woods,
The flow'ry plains, and silver streaming floods,
By snow disguis'd, in bright confusion lie,
And with one dazzling waste fatigue the eye.
No gentle breathing breeze prepares the spring;
No birds within the desert region sing.
The ships, unmov'd, the boisterous winds defy,
While rattling chariots o'er the ocean fly:
The vast leviathan wants room to play,
And spout his waters in the face of day:
The starving wolves along the main sea prowl,
And, to the moon, in icy vallies howl.
For many a shining league the level main
Here spreads itself into a glossy plain;
There solid billows, of enormous size,
Alps of green ice, in wild disorder rise.
And yet, but lately, have I seen, ev'n here,
The winter in a lovely dress appear.
Ere yet the clouds let fall the treasur'd snow,
Or winds began thro' hazy skies to blow,
At ev'ning a keen eastern breeze arose,
And the descending rain unfully'd froze:
Soon as the silent shades of night withdrew,
The ruddy morn disclos'd at once to view
The face of nature, in a rich disguise,
And bright'ned ev'ry object to my eyes:

For ev'ry shrub, and ev'ry blade of grass,
 And ev'ry pointed thorn, seem'd wrought in glass:
 In pearls, and rubies rich, the hawthorns show,
 While thro' the ice the crimson berries glow:
 The thick-sprung reeds the wat'ry marshes yield,
 Seem polish'd lances in a hostile field:
 The stag, in limpid currents, with surprize,
 Sees chrystal branches on his forehead rise;
 The spreading oak, the beech, and tow'ring pine,
 Glaz'd over, in the freezing æther shine:
 The frighted birds the rattling branches shun,
 That wave and glitter in the distant sun.
 When, if a sudden gust of wind arise,
 The brittle forest into atoms flies;
 The crackling wood beneath the tempest bends,
 And, in a spangled show'r, the prospect ends.
 Or, if a southern gale the region warms,
 And, by degrees, unbinds the wint'ry charms,
 The traveller a miry country sees,
 And journey's sad beneath the dropping trees;
 Like some deluded peasant Merlin leads
 Thro' fragrant bow'rs, and thro' delicious meads;
 While here enchanted gardens to him rise,
 And airy fabricks there attract his eyes:
 His wand'ring feet the magic paths pursue,
 And while he thinks the fair illusion true,
 The trackless scenes disperse in fluid air,
 And woods, and wilds, and thorny ways appear:
 A tedious road the weary wretch returns,
 And, as he goes, the transient vision mourns.

SECTION II.

Divisions, Subdivisions, Cities, and Towns of Denmark.

THE grand divisions of Denmark are the four following. Jutland, properly so called, or North Jutland. The duchy of Sleswic, or South Jutland. The duchy of Holstein, and the Danish islands. We shall describe them in that order.

JUTLAND so called, or North Jutland, is bounded on the south by the duchy of Sleswic, on the north and west by the German Ocean, and towards the east by the Baltic, the Categate, and the Lesser Belt.

This country is divided into four dioceses, viz.

Ripen to the south, Arhusen to the east, Wilburg to the west, and Aalborg to the north.

The diocese of Ripen is bounded on the south by the duchy of Sleswic, on the north by the dioceses of Arhusen and Wiburg, and extends east and west from the Baltic to the German Ocean. It contains 30 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 282 parishes, 10 royal palaces, 100 noblemens seats, and seven cities, which are as follows:

Ripen, or Rypen, in Latin Ripa, is seated on the river Nipsaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itself into three branches, the largest of which runs on the north side of the town; the middle branch, which is the smallest, runs on the south of it; the third also on the south, but at some distance: they join again a little lower, and fall into the German Ocean, three miles below, forming a commodious harbour. This city is 26 miles distant from Tonderon, towards the north, and 24 from Colding, to the north-west. It is a place of considerable trade: the neighbouring pastures and fields produces abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are drove almost all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are here shipped off for foreign countries, especially for Holland; and their corn they export into the neighbouring countries. These articles afford them very great profit. But the city is often exposed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with prodigious violence from the sea, so that the water sometimes comes into the very church-yard of the cathedral, which stands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation that afflicted Jutland in the year 1734, the water rose an ell high in the very cathedral.

No. 57.

This town is strong by nature only, without much assistance from art. Towards the west there is a castle flanked with four bulwarks, after the old fashion, built in the year 1150. The citizens houses are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumstances than they are now; but they suffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but soon after recovered by the Danes. Before the reformation this was a bishop's see, as it is now of a superintendant or Lutheran bishop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-stone, as well as its steeple, which is square, very high, and covered with lead. This church is adorned within with several marble columns, and with the tombs of some kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catherine. Here are also two public schools for the education of youth in polite literature, and a college for divinity, in the court of the bishop's palace, where there is also a public library. The city is governed by two burgomasters, or consuls, and by a senate, who formerly administered justice with so much severity, that *the justice of Ripen* was become a proverbial saying, to express a rigorous execution of the law.

Colding, or Kolding, an old city mentioned by Ptolemy, stands on the banks of a little river called Colding Aa, which parts north Jutland from the duchy of Sleswic, and falls into a little gulph, thence named the Gulph of Colding. The city is about 11 miles distant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Eric VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Eric, duke of Sleswic, and son to king Abel. He built a citadel there, to be a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, especially towards the south. Christian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable situation, and wholesome air, built the castle of Arnsburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1st, 1559. The hospital was built by Frederick II. whose son endowed it considerably. In May, 1644, the Danes gained a considerable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This town is but small, since it does not contain above 100 or 120 houses; but what makes it chiefly considerable is its bridge over the Aa, which is called Boherit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horses that come from Jutland, and go into Sleswic, must pass over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll; whence arises a considerable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Lesser Belt, over-against Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fish, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Frederick's Ode, in Latin Frederici Oda, stands on the banks of the Lesser Belt, 10 miles from Colding to the north-east, and about 27 from Ripen towards the east. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well seated on a point of land, with an easy descent to the seaward: it has been well fortified, being a pass over the Lesser Belt, or Middlefort Sound. The works are very high on the land side; and on the other side of the point there are eight bastions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the sea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are bastions, platforms, and some batteries on the shore. Those fortifications enclose a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn-fields and orchards within the walls. This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts and Jews; but king Frederick IV. recalled those privileges. Here are two churches, one Danish, and another German, but they have no steeples. In 1658 this town was taken by Charles Gustavus's troops, commanded by Wrangel; the garrison, consisting of 2000 men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Fun-

nen, where the passage over the Belt is above three English miles.

Weille, or Weel, is six miles distant from Frederick's Ode to the north-west, and about 12 from Colding to the north. It stands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Lesser Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat, and well-built, but not large. About 22 miles to the north-west stands Warde, on a river that falls into the German Ocean, 10 miles below the town, which is conveniently situated for trade.

Ringcoping, or Ringkiobing, is 45 miles from Ripen, and 24 from Warde, to the north. It lies on a bay of the German Ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to south, so that ships ride in the port safe from all winds.

Lenwick stands on the gulph of Limford (from whence it has its name) on the north-west borders of this diocese, 10 miles from the German Ocean to the east, 56 from Ripen, and 81 from Ringcoping, to the north.

Hoftebrow, or Hodselbrow, stands about 11 miles from Lenwick to the south-east, and 12 from Ringcoping to the north-east. It is an inland town, but lies on a river which communicates with the German Ocean by a lake, into which the river falls.

The diocese of Arhusen is the eastern part of Jutland, having on the north the dioceses of Wiburg and Aalborg, on the west and south that of Ripen, and on the east the Categate and Lesser Belt. It extends about 60 miles along the coast of the Baltic, but is not much above 30 miles in breadth at the widest part. It contains 31 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 304 parishes, five castles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns, viz.

Arhusen, the capital of the diocese, stands at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is 86 miles to the northward of Sleswic, and 42 north-east of Ripen. The situation is pleasant, being surrounded with forests full of game, pastures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a considerable quantity of grain. The town itself is neat and agreeable, well furnished with provisions and domestic necessities from the neighbouring country, and with other commodities and luxuries from various countries, by the means of shipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious stile of architecture, beautified and embellished with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The bishop's palace was once a magnificent structure, but is now fallen to decay. The city was made an episcopal see in the year 1014, and is now the see of a superintendent.

Scanderburg, six miles from Arhusen to the south-west, is a good fortress, near the spring of the river Gude.

Horsens, 12 miles distant from Arhusen to the south-west, is a small city or town situated on a little gulph, which serves it instead of a harbour, and falls into the Baltic.

Randers is a very ancient city, situated on the river Gude, which, about 12 miles lower, falls into the Baltic, and thus affords this place a good conveniency for navigation. It is a place of great trade, and famous for the best salmon in Jutland. The neighbouring fields produce plenty of corn.

Ebelstot is seated at the bottom of a bay of the Categate, about 18 miles from Arhusen to the north-west.

Grinaa stands near the point or cape of a peninsula, which juts out into the Categate, and is seven miles distant from Ebelstot to the north. It is defended by a castle.

Mariager stands on the south-side of a large bay of the Categate, 16 miles distant from Arhusen to the north.

Hobro, or Hebro, is a small town on the same bay, six miles above Mariager to the west.

The diocese of Wiburg has that of Aalborg on the north, from which it is partly separated by the gulph of Limford, Arhusen on the east, and Ripen on the south and west. It is not above 24 miles from south to north, and 26 from east to west, being almost of a round figure. Though it is an inland country, yet it wants not the conveniency of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into several parts of this land, and from whence, by means of the Limford, into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltic Sea, they receive vessels of great burthen. Among these lakes there is one named Othesunde, from the emperor Otho, surnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, penetrated even as far as this country, and, casting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it still retains. The best horses in Denmark are bred in that part of the diocese named Salling. In this territory are comprehended 16 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 218 parishes, and three garrisons. The most considerable towns are

Wiburg, which stands in the middle of North Jutland, of which it is the capital city.

It is a place of great resort, being the seat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, except to the king.

Wiburg has been the see of a bishop for above 600 years; but the exact time cannot be fixed; for it is a matter still disputed whether this or Aalborg be the most ancient. The bishop and chapter still subsist. It stands near a branch of the gulph of Limford, called Virksund, and was anciently called Cimmersburg, as being the chief city of the Cimbric; but whence it had its present name is not certain.

Scheve, or Schiffhnis, which stands on the same gulph, is situated 12 miles from Wiburg to the north-west.

The peninsula of Salling, surrounded on all sides by the same gulph, except towards the south, is the most noted place in Denmark for fine horses, which are exported by foreigners.

Nybe, in Latin Nibe, on the same gulph, 18 miles from Wiburg to the north-east, is also noted for a good breed of horses.

The diocese of Aalborg is the most northern part of Jutland, and surrounded by the sea on all parts, except on the south, where it is divided from Wiburg and Ripen by the gulph called Limford, which runs from the Baltic Sea above 50 miles across the country, and is shut out of the German Ocean by a narrow isthmus, or neck of land, made by the sand-hills on the west shore of Jutland, over-against a great shoal called Jusche-Riff. This diocese is about 70 miles long, from the south-west to the uttermost point of Schager-Riff, in the north-east; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every where, being but about 40 miles where broadest. The north part of this diocese, which is cut off by the gulph, (for the city of Aalborg lies on the south-side of it,) is called Wensufal, and by Latin authors Vandalia, whence some apprehend it was the seat of the Vandals. The inhabitants are the hardest of the king of Denmark's subjects. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade. It is divided into 13 bailiwicks, which contain 177 parishes, 100 castles, and the following cities and towns.

Aalborg, so called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulph of Limford, stands on the south shore of it, about six miles from the Categate to the west. It is the see of a bishop, founded about the year 1060; but the bishops resided anciently at Burglaw, whence the diocese was then called the diocese of Burglaw; but since the reformation, the Lutheran bishops have had their palace at Aalborg.

Wensufal, or Burglaw, stands on the river Ryaa, which, 14 miles lower, falls into the gulph of Limford, from which this city is as many miles distant to the north. It was formerly the see of a bishop, which has been removed to Aalborg.

Schagen,

Schagen, Scagen, or Skau, as the inhabitants call it, is seated on the promontory, or cape, which it gives name to; and is the most northern land of Jutland, betwixt the Norwegian sea and the Categate, or Schager-Rack.

The town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, because they touch here in their way to the Sound. Its trade would be far greater still, were it not for the dangerous coast it lies on.

Nikioping situated in the Isle of Mors, made by the gulph of Limford, is a considerable town.

Tysted stands on the south-west part of this diocese, near 30 miles from Aalborg to the west, in the middle of the isthmus made by the German Ocean and gulph of Limford, which is the most fruitful place of this district. This town is noted for a kind of university, which was first a free-school only, founded by Christian the Third.

Seeby is a small seaport town on the eastern shore, 15 miles distant from Schagen, towards the south-west.

The Duchy of SLESWIC, or SOUTH JUTLAND, is an ancient dependance on the kingdom of Denmark; for, in the year 1128, king Nicolas the First gave it to his nephew Canute, the son of Eric. Denmark was afterwards deprived of it; but, in the year 1459, Christian the First re-united it to that kingdom. It is about 86 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, being bounded by Jutland on the north, by the Baltic on the east, by the duchy of Holstein on the south, and by the German Ocean on the west.

It is watered by several streams, which render it exceeding fruitful in most parts, and in general abounds in meadows and pastures. The eastern parts lie considerably higher than the western, and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all sorts of corn. The nobility here are rich, and the common people enjoy a great share of independence. This duchy is divided into four circles, viz. Gottorp, Tonderon, Flensburg, and Hadersleben. The principal cities and towns are the following.

Sleswic, the capital of the whole duchy, is situated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, at the distance of about 38 miles from Gluckstadt to the north-east, and 28 from Lemden to the east. Christianity was established here in the ninth century, and the great church founded by Eric Barn, in conjunction with St. Anschar, bishop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, king Harold Blatand erected an episcopal see. Afterwards the Sclavonians invaded these parts in the year 1065, destroyed the church, and restored the pagan superstitions; but soon after these foreigners were expelled, Christianity was restored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it became a place of great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. The soil, especially towards the south and east, is not very fruitful; but the town is sufficiently supplied with all necessaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fish. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import some from abroad, as well as wine, which is pretty cheap. Among the public buildings is a ducal palace, which they shew to strangers: it does not contain much that is worthy of notice, except a library, which contains a few ancient manuscripts, and a cabinet of rarities in natural history, which has a few things that are really curious. In the gardens are some water-works, and many walks in the old taste, which the poor people of this country think great exertions of magnificence. The principal church is ancient, and a very large fabric; it contains many monuments of the ducal families, but none that will yield much entertainment to a traveller. In the suburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleswic was formerly the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and is now that of a Protestant superintendent.

Within a few miles from Sleswic to the south, are yet to be seen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench, which was built in ancient times by the Danish kings, against the incursions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808; and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Danish monarchs, and rendered so strong, as to be esteemed impregnable by the counsellors of Henry, surnamed the Lion, duke of Saxony. This rampart was called Danewark, and, like Hadrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from sea to sea, quite across this neck of land.

Gottorp was the ancient seat and patrimony of the dukes of Holstein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or surname of Gottorp. It is about six miles distant from Sleswic to the south-west, and stands on the Sley, which almost surrounds it, and carries vessels of small burthen to and from the Baltic. This place is, at the same time, a fortress, and a noble palace, being accounted one of the finest seats in all these northern parts. The castle stands to the west of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong square, fortified with four bastions of earth; the bottom is paved with free-stone, the curtains are long, and the sides stand north and south. You approach the castle by a bridge, which joins it to the south shore. It is commanded by a mountain that stands north-east of it, from whence the Danes annoyed the castle in the year 1675, when the duke was treacherously surprised by the king of Denmark at Rentsburg. The duke, before his death, had designed to rebuild the castle, but the front only is finished; if the whole had been completed, it would have been one of the finest palaces in Europe. A rampart encompasses the first court, and the gate of the castle is a fine blue stone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it that has 27 lights. On the north side of the castle there is a bridge of 200 paces over the lake; and, at the end of the bridge, a walk, between two rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and cascades. On the left there is a basin, or fish-pond, 200 paces square, with rows of trees on all sides, except to the north; there are, also, fine harbours on the sides of the pond; and, in the middle, a Hercules, of a monstrous size, represented with his club, going to kill the Lernaean hydra. Out of every part the water plays. In every corner of the pond, there are statues which form cascades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a crescent, divided into several compartments, with niches round, containing busts of many kings, and modern princes. There are also the representations of many fabulous animals, that throw water. At the end of the walk there is a small room, in which is to be seen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, so contrived, that, by mechanism, it represents his system of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, 10 feet and an half in diameter, with a sphere, wherein the sun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water conveyed from the adjacent mountain. Before this house there is a level ground 50 paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: those on the sides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great basin in the centre, with water-works; the next terrace is higher; and the whole is enclosed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with busts all round. From the highest terrace there is the finest prospect perhaps in the world, viz. the castle in the front, in the middle of a lake surrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or green-house, where they keep the Indian trees, myrtles, pomegranates, and other exotics, in boxes. The park is noble, about four English miles in circumference,

cumference, and full of fallow deer and stags. There is a toll-booth, or custom-house, where all toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that pass from Jutland into Germany; this produces a considerable sum to the king of Denmark, since, in some years, toll is paid for above 50,000 head of cattle.

Eckrenford stands on a little gulph of the Baltic, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords it a considerable trade, being one of the safest ports on that shore. It is about 22 miles distant from Gottorp to the east, and six from Kiel towards the north.

Christianpreis, the capital of a bailiwick of that name, which borders on the duchy of Holstein, is situated on a gulph of the Baltic, at the entrance of the haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a castle that was built in 1637, by Christian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles distant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the east. It has about 500 houses, and two gates, defended with strong works. The Eyder serves for a ditch, and makes it inaccessible; and where the river grows narrower they have built a crescent in the water, with port-holes for 16 pieces of cannon.

Frederickstadt was thus called from its founder, Frederick, duke of Holstein and Sleswic, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured also to settle a silk trade there, and, for that purpose, sent an embassy to Muscovy and Persia, which gave occasion to Adam Olearius, secretary to it, to publish an account thereof in an excellent book of travels. This town stands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 24 miles distant from Sleswic towards the west, and 42 from Gluckstadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch fashion, and all religions are tolerated there. The town is square, and surrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, also with trees on the sides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neatly.

Tonderon is also situated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickstadt, and about 14 miles from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a good trade, which encreases daily, by means of its commodious harbour formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demolished in 1714 by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to surrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderstadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle here.

Flensburg, the capital of a district known by the same name, as well as that of Angelen, or Engeland, the country of the Angles, who invaded South Britain, and bestowed upon it the appellation of England, is situated eight miles to the northward of Sleswic, on the gulph of Flens, formed by the Baltic; and the harbour is so commodious, that ships of great burthen may come up, and lie loaded from the warehouses.

Husum, which is 10 miles from Tonderon, and situated on the gulph of Hover, was formerly flourishing and opulent, but it is now greatly decayed; its ruin being deduced from three capital causes, war, inundations, and conflagrations.

Lohm-Closter is an inconsiderable town, situated on the river Lohm-Becke, about 10 miles from the German Ocean.

Hadersleben is a large sea-port town, by the lake of Hadersleben, which runs into a narrow gulph, that disembogues itself into the Baltic. The inhabitants carry on a tolerable trade by means of the fish that are caught in great plenty, both in the lake and gulph.

Timder, 12 miles to the westward of Hadersleben, is a remarkable neat town, situated in a fertile soil, on the southern bank of the river Wydaw. Here is a small strong fort, which the king keeps in excellent repair. The harbour, however, is choaked up at present, and the town hath scarcely any trade.

Apénrade is situated at the bottom of a gulph of the Baltic, 25 miles north of Sleswic. It is defended by a tolerable citadel; but has, nevertheless, been frequently plundered in time of war.

Luxburg, or Glucksburg, is four miles to the eastward of Flensburg, near the same gulph, but on the opposite side. It is but a small town, yet has a castle, and gives title to the Dukes of Holstein-Glucksburg.

THE Duchy of HOLSTEIN, though introduced into most systems of geography under the article of Germany, we shall treat of under that of Denmark, for the following reasons; because Holstein lies on the north-east side of the river Elbe, is subject to the King of Denmark, and is one of the richest provinces in the dominions of that monarch.

A traveller, who had access to the public records of the kingdom of Denmark, and received many curious particulars from the unfortunate prime minister Count Struensee, thus describes this duchy. The great duchy of Holstein, which is all united to the Danish dominions at present, is famous for its fine pastures, and for producing excellent beef. Great quantities of horned cattle are bought up in Jutland, and other provinces of Denmark, and brought here to be fattened; and their beef, besides what is used for the consumption of Hamburg and Lubeck is salted, dried, and exported; the former to Holland, and the latter to all parts of Lower Germany; and, together with an excellent breed of horses, of which great numbers are exported yearly, bring considerable sums of money into the province, of the whole of which the court of Denmark has not hitherto found the means to drain them; so that this province may justly be said to be the richest in the Danish dominions.

This duchy is bounded on the west by the German Ocean, on the east by the Baltic, on the south-east by Mecklenburgh, on the south-west by the river Elbe, and on the south by the territory of Hamburg, and by Lauenburg. It is 80 miles in length, 60 in breadth, where broadest, and divided into four principal parts, or provinces, viz. Holstein Proper, Wagria, Stormar, and Ditmarsh.

Holstein is remarkably fertile, and contains many rich marsh, pasture, and meadow lands. Dykes have been cut through the marsh lands at an immense expence, not only to drain off the waters, which naturally accumulate there, but to drain off such as are occasioned by the inundations both of the sea and rivers, which are frequent. These, however, give such a richness to the soil of the marshes, that cattle are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them; and vast quantities of excellent butter and cheese are made of the milk. In some parts of them they sow wheat, barley, peas, beans, rape-seed, &c. which thrive exceedingly. Sheep are bred in the more sandy, heathy, and barren districts; and woods and orchards abound in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork, are all fat and palatable; and the best sea and river fish are caught in great plenty. The Holstein horses are exceeding beautiful, and, on that account, are highly prized both in Denmark and Germany. The principal people usually farm out their cattle to a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all profits, and allows the proprietor so much per head for the whole: thus the gentry receive a certain income without having any trouble, and the bailiff is sufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he usually makes a fortune by the extra profits.

The country is in general plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Stor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c. An odd custom prevails here, which is to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times, and sell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then some years after to sow them with oats, or use them for pasture; and after that to lay them under water, and breed fish in them again. The houses and churches are very neat; for the people here

here, with respect to nicety, resemble the Hollanders. The duchy contains about 30 cities and towns, great and small, and 600 parishes. The clergy are annually chosen, and removeable at pleasure. The people are rigid Lutherans; so that they give but very little countenance to Calvinists, and are strongly prejudiced against the Roman catholics. With regard to their character, in other respects, they are, in general, well made, finely featured, fair, strong, courageous, and so celebrated for their integrity, that the expression *Holsteinglaube*, or *honest Holsteiner*, is proverbial throughout Germany, Denmark, &c. The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holstein are as follow:

Lubeck, an imperial city, and chief of the Hans Towns, is situated at the conflux of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave. It is 12 miles from the Baltic, where it has a fine harbour, 25 miles north of Lauenburg, 40 north-east of Hamburg, and 117 south-west of Copenhagen. It is a bishopric under the archbishop of Bremen, and was translated hither from Oldenburg in 1163.

Lubeck is a government or republic within itself, with royal jurisdiction, viz. to make and execute its own laws, as well in civil, as in capital causes. From the consistory there lies an appeal to the senate of the city, which consists of four burgomasters, two syndicks, who are civilians, and 16 common-councilmen; each of whom has his particular province, and they are all for life: but the common-council is only formed of lawyers and merchants, with an exclusion of mechanics. Father and son, or two brothers, cannot be in the regency at the same time.

The name of this city is supposed to be derived from Lob-eck, the German word for a point of land, which agrees with its situation. It is an ancient place, and, as the Poles say, was founded by one of their kings, who conquered this part of the kingdom; but the Germans ascribe its foundation to Codeschalk, one of the kings of the Vandals, in 1040. It has sustained wars, both offensive and defensive, for several years, not only against the dukes of Mecklenburg, but against the king of Sweden. It is said to have been a considerable city when taken in the year 1134, by Crito, a prince of Rugen, who destroyed it; but it was rebuilt in the year 1140, by Adolph II. count of Holstein, and then first endowed with the immunities of the city. In 1158 it was again reduced to a heap of ruins by fire, and was afterwards restored by Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, in whose time the collegiate church was founded. In 1164 the famous league of the Hans Towns was begun here, and their college is still kept, together with their records, and common stock raised by contributions. In 1181 the emperor Frederick I. brought it under subjection to the empire; but Henry the Lion retook it, upon which it fell into the hands of Holstein, and afterwards of Denmark. The city having suffered greatly by fire, particularly in 1276, was rebuilt in the handsome manner now seen; the senate having made an order, that none of the houses should, for the future, be built with timber, or covered with thatch. In 1350 it was almost depopulated by the plague, which carried off vast numbers of the inhabitants. At present it is a fine noble city, spacious, and well fortified; two miles in length, and more than one broad; the streets being strait, uniform and wide. Many of the streets have rows of lime-trees on the sides, and a canal in the middle. The churches are magnificent, and about twenty of them have high spires. The two chief streets leading from the cathedral, and the Miller's Gate, to the royal and castle gate, being the highest parts of the city, are intersected by others that descend gradually on each side to the Trave and Wagnitz Rivers. The houses are large and stately, being built of brick, covered with tiles, generally high, and adorned with sculpture. The river Trave brings ships into the very heart of the city, which is near ten miles from the sea. The largest vessels, however, unload at Tra-

vermund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Petersburg; and the magazines and warehouses are well stocked with the productions and commodities of England, France, Spain, Holland, the East and West Indies, &c. The fortifications are strong, well finished, and kept in good repair. The bastions are lofty and extensive, the out-works numerous, and the haven defended by several forts and ramparts. The several market-places are large, and well supplied; and the public buildings stately, particularly the senate-house, arsenals, hospitals, &c. St. Mary's church is the most considerable in the place, being a lofty edifice, standing in the midst of the city, and has a double steeple, two hundred and seventeen yards high, built in 1304. The inside of it is profusely ornamented with pillars, monuments, &c. but there are few of them which deserve much notice. The great altar is very richly executed in marble, by Quillin, who did so many at Antwerp; and near it is a famous clock, which is the most remarkable object at Lubeck, exhibiting the ecliptic, zodiac, equator, and tropics, and the planets in their several courses; which are so minutely done, that the station of any of them is to be found at every hour of the day. It shews the regular variations of the celestial bodies, sun rising and setting, the eclipses, festivals, and other remarkable days; all which it will continue to shew till the year 1875. Besides all this, there are several automaton; and, among others, a figure of our Saviour, with a door on its right hand, which opening at twelve at noon, out come, in order of procession, the emperor and the seven eldest electors, and turning to the image, make a profound obeisance: this the figure returns by a wave of his hand; after which the whole group retires in the same order, through a door on the left, and both doors shut directly. In the tower is another piece of machinery, the chimes, which play the hours with a pleasing melody, and minute exactness. Under them is the bell, on which is struck the hour. This is performed by a figure of Time; whilst a lesser figure, representing Mortality, and standing at the other side of the bell, turns aside its head at every stroke. This work, for its preservation, is surrounded with a frame of wire. By the inscription it appears to have been erected in 1405.

Among others is a very curious piece called Death's Dance, which represents human beings in all stations of life, from an emperor to the meanest person, and from an old man to an infant, led round a circle by so many skeletons, shewing that death spares neither age or condition.

Ah! what is life, with ills encompass'd round?
Amidst our hopes fate strikes the sudden wound.
To-day the statesman of new honour dreams,
To-morrow death destroys his airy schemes.
Is mouldy treasure in thy chest confin'd?
Think all that treasure thou must leave behind.
The heir with smiles shall view the blazon'd herse,
And all thy hoards with lavish hands disperse.
Should certain fate th' impending blow delay,
Thy mirth will sicken, and thy bloom decay:
Then feeble age will all thy nerves disarm;
No more thy blood its narrow channels warm.
Who then would wish to stretch this narrow span,
To suffer life beyond the date of man?

The cathedral of Lubeck is a building of very great antiquity, being erected in the year 1170, by duke Henry the Lion, ancestor of the present Elector of Hanover. The occasion of building it is mentioned in an inscription on one of the walls, viz. that Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, hunting in this part of the country, caught a stag, with a gold collar and cross about its neck, on which was this inscription, *Hoc me Cesar donavit*, containing the date of the year, which was in the reign of Charlemain: and the duke, from surprize at this accident, erected this cathedral,

for commemoration of it, on the same spot, and endowed it with an handsome revenue. In the top of the church is to be seen the figure of the stag.

All parts of this city are served with water by pipes from a reservoir. The next staple commodity to corn is beer, which is in high estimation, not only as a pleasant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruises, wounds, &c. Here are several hospitals, which are well supported. There is one for ancient people of both sexes, which was once a castle, from whence the citizens drove out the Danish garrison. St. Ann's is for orphans, and other children of poor burghers, who are instructed in some handicraft business; and there is an apartment for the confinement of libertines and lunatics. There are two other hospitals for the reception of poor travellers, where they are allowed three days refreshment, and then sent forward with a pass; but such as happen to be sick, are provided with all necessaries till they recover or die. The richest foundation of this sort is St. George's Cloyster, which is chiefly for the maintenance of such artificers as are grown old and past their labour. There is also St. Gertrude's hospital, which is a pest-house. There are, moreover, several alms-houses, endowed by the merchants, for the maintenance of the widows of poor members; besides several little streets of houses for the widows of other poor citizens.

Travemund, dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north-east, and 32 west of Wismer, is a little town near the mouth of the river Trave. One of the counts of Holstein sold it, in 1320, for 4000 marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it with four good bastions, erected at light-house to guide the ships at night, and commonly keep a garrison here of three or 400 men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgomasters, and admits no persons into the place without a passport. It was seized by the czar in 1617, in order to secure transports for his troops; but he was persuaded to quit it. There is a peninsula over against it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg. The river Trave rises out of a great lake, in the jurisdiction of Segeberg; and, after a serpentine course from north to south, by Segeberg and Oldeslo, turns short to the east, waters the city of Lubeck, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltic.

Oldeslo, or Odelslo, on the river Trave, seven miles south of Segeberg, 18 west of Lubeck, and 31 north-east of Hamburg, is a little old town, which was formerly a very flourishing place, and the capital of this part; but suffered so much by the neighbouring princes, who contended for this province, and by a duke of Brunswick, who destroyed its salt-works, to favour those of Lunenburg, that it is greatly decayed.

Travendal, on the same river, within a mile of Segeberg, is only noted for several treaties betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein in 1700, for adjusting the duke's rights.

Eutin, or Utin, about 16 miles from Lubeck, has given title of duke, and seat, to the younger son of the duke of Holstein, ever since the year 1596.

Ploen is a town almost surrounded by lakes: it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the same name. It has a palace, which stands high, and commands a beautiful prospect, and is adorned with pleasant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furnish great quantities of fish and timber, upon the sale of which the inhabitants principally subsist.

Oldenburg, or Alterburg, was once a very considerable town, but is now fallen to decay. It is situated near the Baltic, 27 miles north of Lubeck, and gives name to a small district. In ancient times the Slavonian kings kept their court here.

Leimden is a market town on the confines of Sleswic, not far from the Eyder. It is celebrated for its beer, which is sent into many parts of the circumjacent country, and even transported abroad.

Meldorp, or Meldorf, is a large town, standing on a river or stream, called the Meele. It has some trade, and three market-places round its church, distinguished by the names of the north, south, and west markets. Here is likewise a public school for the study of the classics and rhetoric.

Heyde is a large but poor town, 10 miles to the north of Meldorp.

Krempi is a small open town, on a little river of the same name.

Gluckstadt is situated on the north side of the Elbe, 26 miles south-west of Hamburg. It is a neat well-built town, and so strong as to be deemed impregnable.

The Danes have 2000 men in garrison here, and some men of war in the harbour, which is very safe and spacious. Here the Calvinists have a church, the Roman Catholics a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. The town was founded in 1620, when Christian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called *Gluckstadt*, which implies *Fortunate-Town*. There being no springs about the town, the inhabitants use rain-water, or that of the river. Those who are convicted of theft receive this sentence; to draw, during life, the dust-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like slaves.

Bredenberg, or Breitenburg, is a village on the Stor, defended by a castle: it gives name to a lordship that has long been the property of the ancient and celebrated family Ranzau.

Primeburg is a market town on the Pinace, 13 miles from Hamburg, and 14 from Gluckstadt. It is only remarkable for giving name to a county which fell to the crown of Denmark by the death of its last count, in 1640.

Altena, a large and populous village, is joined by a row of houses on the Elbe to Hamburg. It had its name from the king of Denmark, as it is said, purely to banter the deputies of Hamburg. The latter remonstrated to him against building this town too near their city; and, having frequently observed thereupon, in their discourse to the king, "Dat is al te na," which, in the language of this country, is "It is too near," the king, taking particular notice of the three last monosyllables, said to the deputies, he could not excuse himself, if he did not go on with the buildings; but that to oblige them, he would call it by the name they had given it. It was formerly a refuge, not only for insolvent debtors, but even malefactors, that came from Hamburg; because, though the inhabitants, a few fishermen and sailors, subject to the king of Denmark, depended entirely on the trade and business of that city, yet it was quite out of his jurisdiction. It is noted for a treaty in 1689, betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp; but much more for its calamity in 1712, when Count Steinboch, the Swedish general, having just defeated the king of Denmark and his army at Gadebusch, came and burnt this town to the ground. The reasons pretended by the Swedes were, that magazines of bread, beer, &c. were preparing here for the Muscovites and Saxons; and that it was partly in reprisal for the burning of Staden, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Muscovites in the duchies of Bremen and Pomerania: but there was this difference as to Staden, that the Danes besieged it in form, and destroyed it by their bombs; whereas Steinboch was judged to act the part of an incendiary. As soon as he appeared before Altena, he sent in a message to advise the inhabitants to retire with what they could carry off, for that he was going to destroy their town. The magistrates came out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him 50,000 rixdollars to save the town; but Steinboch insisted on 200,000, which they were ready to comply with, and only desired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; so that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out; the mothers with their infants at their breasts, and sons with their aged and infirm parents on their backs, others groaning under loads of household-goods, and all lamenting their fate with the most lamentable cries. The Swedes stood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while

while they passed, and, before they were all gone out, entered the town, and set fire to all parts of it, which burnt 2000 houses, with several fine magazines, and the Popish church. Several old men and women, besides infants, perished in the flames; but they spared the Lutheran and Calvinist churches, with about 80 houses that lay nearest to Hamburg. Never was greater desolation known. But what completed the ruin of this place was the raging of the plague at the same time in Holstein, insomuch that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preservation, to shut the gates against their distressed neighbours, many of whom perished with cold and want. The king of Denmark relieved them as far as the necessity of the times would permit, and caused them to be supplied with materials for rebuilding their town. The buildings at Altena are now better in appearance than those of Hamburg; the streets are strait and regularly built, wide, and well paved. There is a town-house erected; and several other public buildings shew that the place is on a flourishing and improving hand. The merchants houses are on the water side, so that ships unload and load at their doors. The king of Denmark made it the staple of the Danish East India company, which has been of very great importance to the town. This measure was an admirable one; for Altena, by means of her situation, distributes the India goods where no other town in Denmark could: she sends large quantities into most parts of Germany, and herein rivals the Hamburgers, who are forced to buy theirs of the Dutch. In all these points the interest of Denmark has been very well considered for this last century, from a noble attention in their kings to promote whatever has been most for the interest of their subjects.

Toleration is allowed here, which is denied at Hamburg, to all Christian sects, of whom there is said to be a greater variety at Altena than in any city of Europe, except Amsterdam. The Calvinists of Holland and France have handsome churches, built all together on two sides of the same court. The Papists, tho' tolerated, are not so publicly countenanced as the Protestants.

Kiel is a town of great trade at the mouth of the river Swentin; on a bay of the Baltic, and the capital of all Holstein, 17 miles east of Rensburg, 24 of Gottorp, 36 north-west of Lubeck, and 48 north of Hamburg, and stands between hills on an arm of the sea, where it forms a lake. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ships from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. Both the town and harbour are defended by a castle on a neighbouring hill. On the right, or east-side of this castle, the sea washes its walls; and on the other side of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody. On the left there is a small arm of the sea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing this castle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the main land; only to the left of the castle there is a row of houses leading to a village called Brunswick. This garden, which stands along the sea side, is above 200 paces broad, and consists of a terrace walk, levelled with the foundation of the castle, from whence there is a descent to parterres full of all sorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain and wilderness; and this leads to other parterres, from whence there is a small ascent to another terrace. It suffered very considerably during the war between Sweden and Denmark. An university was established here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned professors. It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the largest and most pleasant, the streets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a sort of peninsula, is fortified by deep ditches; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town on the north-side, but it is in very bad repair. Here are several considerable buildings, particularly a large church and an hospital, which, before the reformation, was a Franciscan monastery.

The trade of this town is not so considerable as it was in the time of duke Frederick, who sent an em-

bassy to Persia in 1633, to settle a commerce with that country. But it is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, especially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleswic and Holstein, who meet every evening at a house, where there is a variety of gaming; and very often parties are made for supper, which is generally followed with a ball. Vast sums of money are here negotiated; and payments made of sums contracted before-hand, as punctually as by an Amsterdam banker upon the exchange; insomuch, that the man who does not preserve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and subjected to punishment, besides the scandal. During this fair Hamburg looks like a desert; because every body hurries hither to pay their rents, to renew their leases, or to let out money, &c. by which means the town, which at other times is but inconsiderable, is so full, that it is difficult to get lodgings.

The old town is separated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a draw-bridge and gate, guarded.

Rensburg is situated near 20 miles west of Kiel, and 32 south-east of Lunden, being near the borders of Sleswic. It is small, but well built, and very strong, having modern built fortifications, a capacious morass on one side, and a neat old castle, with a round tower, on the other. The town is surrounded by the river Eyder, which forms two small lakes, that abound with fish. It is divided into the old and new town.

Wilster is a small town on a river of the same name, six miles from Gluckstadt.

Itzehoe is a small town on the river Stor, which is navigable from thence to the Elbe. The country from hence to Hamburg is remarkably pleasant, and exceeding fertile. The town is divided into the old and new, the latter of which is extremely well built. Here is a Lutheran nunnery for ladies of quality, but they do not make vows, or lie under those restrictions which are customary in Roman Catholic convents. It consists of an abbess and 19 other ladies, and has the advowson of several churches.

ISLANDS, COMPREHENDING THE PRINCIPAL PARTS AND PLACES IN THE DANISH DOMINIONS;

WE annex our description of the following insular to the continental parts of Denmark, because, collectively considered, they are the seat of regal and legislative government, contain the metropolis of the realm, the general archives of the nation, and are the sources whence flow the chief political, civil, and ecclesiastical decrees, statutes, &c. Add to these reasons, they are so absolutely blended with, and nearly contiguous to, the other main parts of the nation, that it would be impossible to describe Denmark as a kingdom, without taking them into particular consideration. The other islands, not so immediately connected with, though subject to, or dependant on, Denmark, we shall describe in our account of the islands in those seas, where they are respectively situated.

Before we enter into a description of these parts of the Danish monarchy, it is necessary to premise a few observations concerning the Baltic. This sea, or rather inland gulph, situated between Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Russia, receives into its bosom several other gulphs, particularly the gulphs of Finland, Bothnia, Livonia, and Dantzick. It is remarkable that this sea, or gulph, neither ebbs or flows, and there is always a current from it, that sets through the Sound into the ocean. It is likewise generally frozen over three or four months in the winter.

ZEELAND, ZEALAND, OR SEELAND.

ZEELAND is the most extensive and fertile island of the Baltic, and the principal part of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded on the east by the Sound, which divides it from Schonen, and on the west by the Greater Belt, which separates it from Funen. The islands

islands of Moon, Falster, and Laland, lie on the south; and on the north are the Categate and Schager-rack. It is almost of a round form, being 70 miles in diameter, and about 200 in circumference. The land, in general, is low, and very fertile; and its woods, forests, &c. abound with game. The coast is indented with many gulphs, bays, creeks, &c. which are of great commercial use, as they afford many secure harbours. The sea vapours render the air thick, but not unwholesome, as the people here, in general, live to a very old age; but they are dull, dispirited, and inactive. Zeeland is divided into 26 bailiwicks, called herrits, and these contain 346 parishes, with several considerable cities, towns, &c. Of these the principal is

Copenhagen, the capital of the whole kingdom. This city takes its name from the commodiousness of its port; for the word itself signifies, *The Merchant's Port, or Haven*. It is situated on the eastern shore of Zeeland, upon a fine bay of the Baltic, near the strait called the Sound, in 55 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 12 deg. 56 min. east long.

Copenhagen was originally a mean little village of fishermens huts, which, by the assistance of the bishops of Roschild, gradually rose to be a considerable town, and at length was declared a city, and made the royal seat of the Danish sovereigns. The houses were formerly of wood; but, in the year 1728, almost the whole city was reduced to ashes by fire; and since that time it has been more sumptuously and securely built of free-stone. The then reigning king exhausted immense treasures to erect a superb palace; and the town is embellished with elegant houses, belonging to the nobility, many magnificent churches, and other elegant public edifices. An ingenious gentleman, however, who was very lately in this city, says, "so few persons visit this metropolis, or kingdom, from motives of curiosity, that they are quite surprized when I assure them I have no sort of business here, and am only employed in the search of knowledge. There is no face of industry or business here; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, can boast of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers, either in the land or sea service; and they appear to constitute three-fourths of the audience, both at the comedy and the opera. The number of forces are indeed much too large for this little kingdom. They can boast, it is true, a vast extent of dominion; but of what importance are the barren and almost uninhabited mountains of Norway and Lapland, stretching to the pole, or the plains of Iceland, where the inhabitants are yet, and will probably ever remain, in the most profound barbarism? Their dominions in Holstein are by far the most rich, and furnish a large part of the royal revenue. There needs, indeed, no stronger proof of the poverty of the kingdom, than the scarcity of specie. I have seen no gold, and hardly any silver. They pay every thing in paper; and if you lose a single dollar at the card-table, or the billiard-table, it is given in a bill." The excellency of the harbour is owing to the island of Amack, which breaks off the waves, and shelters it from the surge of the sea. Here stands the arsenal, the exchange, the castle, and the mint, with about 500 houses, known by the name of the New Town. The whole city of Copenhagen is about five miles in circumference. It lies very low; but there is a rising ground within about half a league of it, and two or three little hills that cover it on the west-side, from whence the city may easily be bombarded. It has a very regular citadel on the north and north-west, built on the shore, with several fine bastions, with ravelins of earth, well stored with cannon, and pallisadoed. The other sides are of more difficult access, by reason of marshes. There are several royal bastions, with ravelins before the curtains, which reach from the citadel to the south part, and continue beyond the arm of the sea, which separates Zeeland from Amack. A circuit of fortifications, consisting of eight

royal bastions, and a ravelin, encloses the new city, the port, and fleet, and faces the tolbooth, or custom-house battery, which secures the entry into the haven. These fortifications make the city of a round form. The houses, which are not above 7000 in number, do not take up above half the ground enclosed. The entrance into the harbour is so narrow, that one ship only can pass at a time; and this entrance is shut up every night with a strong boom. The citadel on one side, and a good block-house, well furnished with cannon, on the other, command the mouth of it. Within this haven rides the royal navy, every ship having its place assigned to it. A wooden gallery ranges round the whole enclosure where the fleet lies, and is laid over the water in such a manner, that all the ships may be viewed near at hand, as easily and commodiously as if they lay on dry land. This harbour is capacious enough to hold 500 sail, where neither the wind or the enemy can do them the least mischief. The road without is very good and safe, being fenced from the sea with a large sand-bank, on the points of which are always two buoys floating, to direct all ships that come in or go out. Here are no tides to fear, and there is always a sufficient depth of water. Sometimes, indeed, according as the wind blows in or out of the Baltic, there lies a current; but it is neither frequent or dangerous.

The island of Amack lies east from the city of Copenhagen, on the other side of the haven, and is called the Garden of Copenhagen. It is almost of an oval form, and was chiefly planted by Hollanders, sent thither by Margaret, duchess of Savoy, and governess of the Low Countries, at the desire of Christian II. who had married her niece, sister to Charles V. emperor of Germany. He wished that his queen might have pulse, and other garden-stuff, planted there, which none knew so well how to cultivate as the Hollanders. Half the island was granted to them, and keeps to this day the name of Hollandesby. They still retain the Dutch fashions, and supply Copenhagen with milk, butter, and cheese. The other half of the island is inhabited by Danes. Besides pulse, and other fruit, which this island produces, here is also plenty of wheat, barley, and oats. It also produces abundance of hares. The inhabitants are industrious, and their houses neat and cleanly.

Here is a place which approaches nearer to the nature of a circus than a square. Each side is formed of only one single palace; and in the center is an equestrian statue, in bronze, of king Frederick the Fifth. This place has a good effect, and is much more handsome than the Place de Victoires at Paris. There is a fine collection of paintings in one of these palaces, and a very curious private museum in another. But the greatest curiosities, natural and artificial, both for variety and intrinsic value, are preserved in the Royal Museum, in eight chambers, erected over the king's library. The chambers, or apartments, are large and well furnished. One of these rooms is wholly taken up with medals, antique and modern, each sort being kept by themselves, and very judiciously arranged; and in a separate case are contained the Paduans, and other counterfeit medals, which, in workmanship, so nearly resemble the true Grecian and Roman antiquities, that a good judge can scarcely distinguish them from originals. The series of the modern medals of European nations are absolutely complete, and those of each nation kept distinct. Here it is proper to observe, by way of explanation, that a Paduan, amongst medalists, is a modern medal struck with all the marks and characters of antiquity. The name is taken from a famous Italian painter, called the Paduan, from Padua, the place of his birth, who succeeded so well in the cheat, that the best judges are at a loss to distinguish his medals from those which are really antique.

Amongst the natural curiosities preserved in the chambers, one of the most remarkable is a petrified child,

child. It was cut out of the mother's belly at Sens, in Champagne, in the year 1582, after having lain there between 20 and 30 years; and that it is a human foetus, and not artificial, is evident beyond all dispute. Its head, shoulders, and belly, are of a whitish colour, and very much resemble alabaster; the back and loins are somewhat brown and harder; but, from the hips downwards, it is of a red colour, and as hard as perfect stone can be, exactly resembling the hard sort of stones generated in the bladder. This foetus, after it was taken from the mother, was first carried to Paris, where it was sold to a jeweller of Venice, who happened to be there, for about 20*l*. sterling; of whom it was afterwards purchased by Frederick III. king of Denmark, for 60*l*. and added to this collection.

In one of the chambers are to be seen two elephants teeth, each weighing an hundred and fifty pounds, which were dug out of a stone quarry in Saxony.

In this fine collection there are several large pieces of silver ore, dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs 460 pounds, and is valued at 5000 crowns. Another piece, somewhat less, is valued at more than 3000; both being so rich, that they are reckoned to contain at least three parts silver. They are composed of a whitish stone, the cracks or cavities whereof seem to be filled with pure virgin silver, which, in some places, lies in broad flat plates, and in others like pieces of fine silver lace. But what is most admired in these pieces of ore, are the threads, or branches of silver, which shoot out an inch or two beyond the surface of the stone, appearing in the form of small shrubs or bushes. Several other rarities of this kind are to be seen among the silver ores preserved in this museum.

Here are also several large pieces of amber, some weighing 40 or 50 ounces; which, upon opening the ditches about Copenhagen, when they fortified the city, were found sticking to the sides of old trees that were buried there, like the gum on the plum-trees in our gardens.

In the same chamber are a great many large branches of white and red coral, and one of black; likewise a pair of stag's horns growing out of a piece of wood in a surprising manner.

Here is a human thigh bone three feet three inches long; and two very large scollop shells, holding about three gallons each, and weighing 224 pounds a piece. These were brought from the East-Indies; and, it is said, the fish they belong to is of such strength, that if a man happens to get his arm or leg between the shells when they open, it claps them together so forcibly as to cut the limb clear off.

A piece of marble is preserved in this collection, which the Lutherans reckon a very valuable curiosity, the natural veins of the stone running in such a manner as to represent the exact figure of a crucifix. Some, indeed, have suspected the representation to have been by art; but, upon the nicest examination, it appears to be entirely the work of nature.

Among the artificial curiosities there is a skeleton made of ivory, two feet six inches high, in imitation of a human one; and it is so nicely formed and put together, that it may be easily taken for a natural one.

There are likewise two crucifixes of ivory, and the whole history of our Saviour's passion, beautifully expressed in a piece of carved work.

A small man of war in ivory, with silver guns, is a curiosity much admired; as is also a watch made of ivory, with all its wheels and movements.

Besides these there are many other curiosities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials, which are kept for the sake of their elegant workmanship. There is likewise a common cherry-stone, on the surface of which are engraved 220 heads, but their smallness makes them appear imperfect and confused.

In this royal repository are six golden sepulchral urns, which were found in the island of Funen in 1685, by a peasant, as he was ploughing his land, and con-

tained each of them some ashes of a greyish colour. The largest of them weighs two ounces and a half, and the others two ounces and a dram. They are extremely thin, and each has three rings of gold about its neck, with several circles carved upon the outside of the urn, having one common center. This discovery confirms the accounts given by various writers; that it was an ancient custom among the northern nations to burn their dead, and then bury their collected ashes in golden urns.

There is another sepulchral urn of chrystal, of a conical figure, which has also a golden ring about it, and was found near Bergen in Norway.

There are likewise in this collection several vessels of different sizes, some of glass, and others of earth, which are called lachrymal urns, or lachrymatories, being used by the ancient Romans to catch the tears of weeping friends, which were afterwards mixed with the ashes of the deceased.

We shall conclude our account of this celebrated museum with a description of the Danish and Oldenburg horns, two curiosities which are greatly admired. The Danish horn is of pure gold, weighs an hundred and two ounces and an half, is two feet nine inches long, and holds about two quarts of wine measure. This horn was accidentally discovered in the year 1639, by a country girl, in the diocese of Ripen, in Jutland, and is undoubtedly a piece of great antiquity, by the figures carved on the outsides, which seem to be hieroglyphics, &c. It is likely that some of these figures were designed to represent their deities; and the horn was probably used in sacrifices, as among the ancient Assyrians, and other nations, who, upon such solemnities, made a great noise with horns and trumpets, and used them to drink out of at their solemn entertainments.

The Oldenburg horn is of pure silver, gilt with gold, weighs about four pounds, and is curiously enamelled with green and purple colours. The Danish antiquaries relate many fabulous stories of this horn, which are not worth repeating; and as to what they say of its being given to Otho, earl of Oldenburg, in the year 982, it is plain it cannot be of that date, for the figures and characters on the outside are modern; which, however, with the enamelling, and other ornaments, are of excellent workmanship, and make it a very fine and valuable curiosity.

An ingenious traveller, in speaking of the palace of Rosenburg, in this city, says, it was constructed by our famous Inigo Jones, and stands in the middle of a large garden. It is small, and at present very little used by the king, or royal family. There is an air of antiquity in all the apartments, tapestry, and furniture, which is not displeasing, and impresses with respect. The grand sala, or dining-room in particular, is in this stile. The hangings, which are not ill-executed, represent the various actions by sea and land, which diversified the ancient laws between the Swedes and Danes, who seem always to have had the same rivalry and animosity which the French and English are distinguished for, and which, 'tis probable, they will ever, in some degree, retain. At one end of this grand apartment are three silver lions as large as life, who seem, by the ferocity and rudeness of their appearance, designed to characterize the age and nation in which they were cast. Here are several cabinets full of curious rarities, which the various sovereigns of Denmark have successively collected and left to their posterity. Many of them are intrinsically valuable, others only preserved from some event or accident connected with them. Among the first is a saddle, on which Christian IV. made a sort of triumphal entry into Copenhagen. It is covered with pearls, diamonds, and other precious stones; and the spurs are of stones enriched with jewels. The coat worn by the king, and a light helmet on the same occasion, are likewise covered with pearls. They preserve likewise, with great care, a handkerchief of this prince, dyed with his blood from a wound which he received by a ball, that

deprived him of an eye. The man who accompanied us shewed me, with exultation in his countenance, a sword of Charles XII. of Sweden. It is just such a sword as such a monarch may be supposed to have used, and would well become the meanest soldier. It, indeed, evinces his strength and vigorous frame of body, by its size and weight: the blade is at least four feet long, and both the hilt and garde are entirely composed of brass.

The gardens of this place constitute one of the chief diversions of this city, as they are always open, and on festivals or Sundays crowded with company. They are large, but not laid out with taste, or adorned with any productions of art, one statue only excepted of Hercules vanquishing the Nemean lion, which stands under a portico, raised to defend it from the inclemency of the weather. This is of Italian workmanship; and the artist has found means to display great anatomical skill and beauty in the attitude and muscles of the hero, who, by an extraordinary exertion of strength, forces open, and breaks the jaw of his adversary.

The other principal buildings of Copenhagen are the king's muse, or stables, the orphan-house, the opera-house, the military school, the royal library, which contains above 40,000 printed books and manuscripts, in various languages, and the university. With respect to the latter, it must be observed, that, prior to the reign of Christian I. (who was one of the best kings that ever ruled the Danes, and, indeed, may be deemed the Alfred of Denmark,) the Danish nobility and gentry, for want of proper seminaries of learning in their own country, were under the necessity of sending their children to the French and German universities and colleges for education. To remedy this great inconvenience Christian applied to, and obtained leave of, the pope, to establish a public seminary of learning in his own dominions, when the university of Copenhagen was accordingly founded in the year 1475. But neither the successors of this wise and patriotic monarch, or even the clergy, have seconded his laudable endeavours with a proper degree of spirit: for a very intelligent gentleman, who recently visited this city, says, "There are several hundreds of students in the university of Copenhagen who were entered upon establishments which were made by former kings, when all the necessaries of life were very cheap, and when their young men could live decently upon what were allowed them; but now, as all these necessaries are become much dearer, and as few of those students have any private fortune, many of them are in the greatest misery. I have met with several young men of lively parts, in the university, which might make a considerable figure in the world; but since the new titular nobility bear the sway here, ignorance and impudence, as coming the nearest to their own character, are rewarded; whilst real merit, modesty, and decency, are treated with the greatest contempt. Sometime since, the king had a French comedy established at Copenhagen, to the sight of which every decent person was admitted gratis: but I was really astonished to see three or four young men of genius refused admittance to this comedy because they were students in the university, though they were very decently dressed, and even solicited to be admitted into the galleries; while those places were filled with valet de chambres, and others of that class. No class of people are held in more contempt, in this country, than the students of the university. What encouragement, then, have men of genius to study and cultivate the sciences?"

Helsingør, or Elsfeneur, is situated about 20 miles north of Copenhagen, on a neck or strait of the sea, called the Sound, and surrounded by walls. The castle of Cronenburg, which defends Helsingør, and the castle of Helsingburg, on the opposite shore, command the commerce of the Baltic; for between these two forts all vessels that trade into that sea must pass; so that this strait is the most frequented of any in Europe, that of Gibraltar excepted. The castle of Cronenburg

was built by Frederick II. of free-stone, brought from Gothland. Every ship that passes this strait must strike sail at Cronenburg, and come to the town to compound for the custom, under the penalty of forfeiting the vessel and cargo. Helsingør was surrounded with walls under the reign of Christian IV. and peopled not only with Danes, but also with citizens from several nations. The city suffered very much when Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, besieged Cronenburg in 1658. It was taken by him, but restored to the Danes by the treaty of Copenhagen in 1660. This was the native place of the celebrated John Isaac Pontanus, though his parents were of Haerlem in Holland. He was doctor of physic, professor in the university of Hardewyck, and historiographer to the king of Denmark, and the province of Gelderland.

The castle of Cronenburg is four or 500 paces distant from Helsingør, on the spot where stood formerly the fortress of Orekrange. It is built upon oaken piles, fastened with hewn stones, and so solid, that it supports the fury of the tide, which sometimes beats against it most violently, without damaging it in the least. It makes a large square court, and was adorned with fine statues; the apartments also being very splendid. The pipes of the cistern, which supplied the garrison with water, and the locks of the doors, were all of fine silver, before it was plundered by the Swedes. It has four little towers at each corner, covered with copper: but the castle, with the chapel, steeple, and ornaments of it, are all going to decay. It has a ditch towards the sea, surrounded with another ditch; and the land side is secured by five bastions, and a half bastion. They have five cannons upon them: but the bastion that secures the passage of the Sound has but two cannons, 36 pounders each; and 11 more of smaller size. The rampart is vaulted with free-stone. Frederick II. who built this castle, spent none but his own money in the building of it; and declared, that if he knew there was one single stone in it that cost his people a farthing, he would have it removed.

The unfortunate queen Caroline Matilda was confined in this castle. There is a little hunting-seat, or palace, about a quarter of a mile from Helsingør, to which the king resorts, for a few hours, in summer. There is nothing worthy of observation in the structure itself; but from the roof the prospect is enchanting, as it commands the town of Helsingør, the castle of Cronenburg, the Sound, and the coast of Sweden, for a considerable way.

Over-against Helsingør lies the island of Huen, or Ween, remarkable only for the castle of Uraniburg, built by the famous Tycho Brahe. King Frederick II. had given him that island for his life, that he might build an observatory there, with other buildings proper for his purpose. The king gave him also a pension of 2000 golden crowns, a considerable fief in Norway, and a prebend in the church of Roschild. This island was perfectly well suited to Tycho Brahe's design; for it is properly a hill, which rises in the middle of the sea, the top of which is flat and smooth, and commands a prospect all over the coast of Schonen, and the neighbouring country, affording thus a very extensive horizon. Add to this, that the sky is here generally clear, there seldom arising any fogs. Tycho Brahe laid, towards the middle of the island, the foundation of his castle, which he named Uraniburg, that is to say, the Town of Heaven; and finished it in four years' time. From the disposition and convenience of the apartments, together with the engines and instruments for observations it contained, it was looked upon as a building that had not its equal in the world. In the neighbourhood of it were lodgings for workmen of all kinds, maintained at the expence of the master; a printing-house, a paper-mill, forges for making of instruments, laboratories for chymical experiments, &c. Four years after he built, in the south part of the island another house, which he called Stelburg, that is, Starburg; there he kept several instruments, and lodge

some students and servants, who applied themselves to some particular study. But Uraniburg is now gone to decay. The island of Huen belongs now to the Swedes.

The chair in which Tycho Brahe used to sit, to make his astronomical observations, is still preserved in the Royal Museum, and held, by the Danes, in the highest veneration. "Thus (says a judicious traveller in a letter to a friend) it ever happens! I need not remind you that the astronomer himself was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence; or that he died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who sheltered this illustrious fugitive, and afforded him an asylum. Dr. Johnson's lines, so often quoted on similar occasions, are very applicable.

"See nations slowly wise, and meanly just,
"To bury'd merit raise the tardy bust."

Holbeck, Callenburg, Ringstede, Presto, Koge, Warienburg, Newstad, Skelskor, and Korfor, are places which contain nothing worthy of description.

Fredericksburg is a small town, 20 miles distant from Copenhagen, to the north-west, and 18 from Helsingør to the south-west. It is considerable only by the stately castle and royal palace which stands near it. That castle was formerly but a small seat belonging to a private gentleman. King Frederick II. being charmed with its situation, bought it of him, and began to enlarge it. His son, Christian IV. finished it. This is the Versailles of Denmark. The house is built on piles in a lake. The body of the castle consists of a very fair front, with two great wings. The chapel is well adorned, and covered with gilt copper. It has 12 silver statues of the apostles; and all the locks, bolts, &c. were silver, till it was plundered by the Swedes. The hall is adorned with paintings, and has the pictures of several of the kings of Denmark, and of the royal family, as large as the life; and a frame of paintings, which represents the sea and land battles of the kings of Denmark. It is hung with rich tapestry of mohair, representing the actions and battles of Christian IV. There is a gallery which leads from the castle to the hall of audience, adorned with pictures, most of which were bought in Italy. Here is a park about nine miles long, of a proportionable breadth, and interspersed with pools and fish ponds, with a mixture of green plods, hillocks, and small vallies. It was stocked with fallow deer from England. There is a pretty flower garden behind the castle, in the very lake; in which, though it is exceeding deep, they have built a kind of terrace on piles that cost an hundred thousand crowns.

Roschild, or Roskild, lies at the bottom of the bay of Isefjord, and is 18 miles distant from Copenhagen to the west. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king resided there; but since they have chosen Copenhagen for their residence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much decayed with respect to wealth and commerce. Of 27 churches, which formerly embellished this town, only two are now standing. It continues, however, to be the burial place of the royal family. Among the monuments of the Danish sovereigns, some of which are extremely magnificent, stands a beautiful marble pillar, erected by queen Margaret, as a support to the whetstone sent her by Albert, king of Sweden, to sharpen her needles, in derision to her sex. But it whetted her resentment in such a manner, that he suffered severely for his sarcasm; for he was taken prisoner by the queen, detained seven years in custody, and obliged to relinquish all his pretensions to the crown of Sweden. Here is a convent of Lutheran nuns belonging to the best families; but they are not obliged to wear any particular habit, or to be restricted by the vows usual in convents; but are permitted, if they think proper, to quit the convent, and marry.

In 1658 the famous treaty of peace was here concluded between Denmark and Sweden. The university is in a declining condition; and, indeed, the whole town exhibits evident marks of poverty and decay.

Sora is situated on the banks of a lake, about the center of Zealand, was formerly the seat of a rich abbey, and has many pleasant fields and forests near it. To this place the academy of Fredericksburg was removed, and the foundations of the university were augmented by Christian IV. Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained such a veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not suffer his soldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this seminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Absolom, archbishop of Lunden, once founded here an establishment for the maintenance of those who should write the history of Denmark; and to this foundation we owe the history written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

F U N E N.

THIS island is the next to that of Zealand, in the scale of importance, among the several parts which form the Danish kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the east, by the Lesser Belt on the west, by the Baltic on the south, and by a little channel, which separates it from the island of Samsø, on the north. It is about 36 miles from east to west, and 30 from north to south. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diversified with verdant hills, shady woods, pleasant groves, fruitful fields, rich pastures, &c. The soil is good, well cultivated, and affords a great deal of grain, not only for home consumption, but exportation. Great quantities of black cattle, horses, hogs, &c. are bred here. This island is an appendage to the eldest sons of the kings of Denmark, and is deemed one of the richest governments belonging to that sovereignty. It contains four garri-soned towns, and 264 villages; but the most considerable places, and the only ones, indeed, worthy of description, are the following.

Odensee, the capital of the island, stands about its center, and is a capacious, well-built, pleasant town. Here the kings once resided, and the assembly of the states met before the crown became hereditary, and the sovereign absolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found near a century and a half ago. It was deposited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious stones. The most particular circumstance relative to this town, at present, is, that the inhabitants brew the best beer in the whole kingdom.

Nyburg lies on the narrower part of the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand. This place has some trade, the harbour is good, and the adjacent country is fertile. The damages done to the fortifications in the late wars with Sweden, are not yet thoroughly repaired. Embarkations for the island of Zealand are made at this town.

Schwenborg is an agreeable town, with a commodious harbour, situate on the south-east part of the island. From hence Charles Gustavus, in the year 1658, began his march, over the ice, to the islands of Langeland, Zealand, and Falster.

Woburg, or Foburg, is a small town, situate on a little gulph on the southern coast of Funen, over-against the island of Arroe, and is about 10 miles distant from Schwenborg to the west.

Affens lies on the south-west coast of this island, over-against Hadersleben, in the duchy of Sleswic. It is about 11 miles distant from Odensee to the south. In the year 1535 the army of king Christian III. commanded by John Rantzaw, routed that commanded by Christopher, earl of Oldenburg, and killed Gustavus Troll, archbishop of Upsal. Rantzaw afterwards levelled this town with the ground.

M de lazar,

Middlefar, on the western shore of the island, lies on the Lesser Belt, hence also called Middlefar-Sound. It is 17 miles distant from Affens to the north-west, and as many from Odensee towards the south-west. It is a small, but neat town, in a country abounding with all the necessaries of life. It is the common passage from this island to Colding in Jutland; the Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Gravesend. On the 13th of January, 1658, Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Danish forces that opposed him, and made himself master of the whole island of Funen.

F A L S T E R.

THIS island lies to the north-east of Laland, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It has Zealand on the north, and the island of Moon on the north-east. It is 20 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Its soil is very fruitful; and much corn is sent from hence to Mecklenburg, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; that of the south, or Synder-Herit; and that of the north, or Norre-Herit. It has several towns; among which the chief are Nycoping, on the western coast of the island, of which it is the capital. It is one of the most pleasant and well built towns in the whole kingdom, and stiled, by Dr. Heylin, the Naples of Denmark. It has a strong castle, and a well frequented harbour. Stubcoping, in Latin Stubcopia, seated on the north coast, is a place of some trade, being the usual passage from Zealand into Germany.

A R R O E.

THE island of Arroë is situated near the coast of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniseed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and season their meat. In this island are plenty of horses and black cattle; and some woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole island has but three parishes, the most considerable of which is Kopin, or Kioping. The town belonging to it stands on the southernmost part of the island, and bears the same name as the parish. It has a trade on account of its port, and is situated at the bottom of the bay.

L A L A N D.

THE island of Laland is situated on the eastward of Langeland, and to the southward of Zealand, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called Grone Sound. From its lowness, or flatness, it has the appellation of Laland, or Lowland. It is near 40 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth, where widest. The soil is very fertile; so that Copenhagen is supplied from hence with great quantities of corn, besides what the Dutch traders are furnished with for exportation. This island is divided into five districts, or bailiwicks, is the seat of a governor, and has several small islands subject to its jurisdiction. It contains various pleasant little villages and hamlets, and a few seats belonging to the noblesse, exclusive of four towns, Nascow, Saxcoping, Levenscoping, and Nysted.

Nascow, or Naxkow, the capital, is 59 miles south-west from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fishery is of some consequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and pasture lands.

The rest contain nothing worthy of particular notice.

M O O N.

THE island of Moon lies to the south-east of Zealand, and to the north-east of Falster. It is about 20 miles long, eight broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is some pasture ground, but very little corn land. It was formerly part of the Danish admiral's allowance, as being the first place for him to reside in.

There are in this island several villages, large parishes, and a considerable city, called Stege, or Stekoe, which lies on the north of the island, on a little rivulet, that a mile lower falls into the strait called Grone Sound. This city made a brave defence against the Lubeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat: and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole island was signalized in 1659, when they defended themselves better against the Swedes than the larger islands had done.

L A N G E L A N D.

THIS island, which is 22 miles long, and eight broad, is situated on the Greater Belt, to the southward of Funen. It abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantities. It is divided into 16 parishes; and Rutcoping, on its western coast, is the most considerable town, being defended by the fort of Traneker, which is always furnished with a strong garrison.

F E M E R E N

LIES near the coast of Holstein, from whence it is separated by a strait which is not above two miles broad, and is called Der Femmer Sundt, i. e. the Straits of Femeren. Though it is but a small spot of ground, yet it has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. Therefore king Christian IV. was more afraid of the Germans becoming master of this island, than of their over-running Jutland, which caused him to fortify all the old castles, and put strong garrisons into every place of importance here. This island is extremely fruitful in corn and pastures, and yet has but two parishes, namely, Borg and Petersdorp. There is a fort at the place where people land from Holstein, called Fethschans, that is, the Fort of the Passage.

B O R N H O L M.

BORNHOLM, anciently Boringia, is said to have been discovered by Thicloraus, the son of a prince of Jutland. It is the remotest and most easterly of all the islands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles distant from Zealand to the east, and not above 15 from the nearest coast of Schonen to the south-east. It is about 18 miles long, from north-west to south-east, and about 10 in breadth, from south-west to north-east. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its situation and fruitfulness, and belonged once to the archbishop of Lunden; but king Christian II. took possession of it in the year 1524, as being absolutely necessary for the fleet he was preparing against Sweden; which usurpation George Sesteburg, who was then archbishop, opposed with all his power, but in vain, for he was forced afterwards to fly into Germany, to avoid the effects of the king's displeasure. The Swedes have frequently laid this island waste; and, in the war with Frederick II. they made themselves masters of it, and designed to keep it; but they were obliged to restore it by the treaty of Copenhagen, concluded May 27th, 1660. The most considerable places are Sandwyck, on the northern coast; Rattenby, on the south-western; Nex, on the eastern; and Sand-Hamer, to the north of Nex, on the same coast; besides which there are here several villages.

MANY little islands surround the above mentioned more considerable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of so little importance, as not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers, or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark; the most considerable of which are Samsoe and Lessaw, on the coast of Jutland.

Samsoe, or Samsoi, is in the Baltic, eight miles from the coast of Jutland. It is near nine miles in length, three in breadth, fruitful, healthy, and pleasant.

Lessaw

Lessaw belongs to the diocese of Aabur, opposite to which it lies, at about the distance of 12 miles from the shore. It is surrounded by sand-hills, but has two places where ships may ride safely at anchor, on the north and east sides, and contains three small villages.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Sleswic, are the following islands, viz.

Rom, which is in length seven, and in breadth four miles, contains several small hamlets, and about 1500 inhabitants. Towards the eastern parts the pasturage for cattle is excellent; and on the western side of the island are several harbours, in which small vessels may ride in safety.

The greatest part of Manoe, formerly a considerable island, has been swallowed up by the sea.

The island of Sylt is situated to the northward of Fora, and is of a triangular form, the longest side being about 14 miles in length. It is sandy, barren, and inhospitable; and the people, who are a hardy, clownish race, are annually engaged in the whale fisheries, on the coasts of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen. Earthen urns, containing human bones, ashes, &c. have been found in the hills of this island, which farther evinces that the ancient inhabitants burned their dead.

Northstrand lies opposite to the bailiwick and town of Husum, and was, it is said, separated from the continent by a violent storm. When it became an island it was about 12 miles long, and four broad, in some places, and in others less. Its soil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we shall mention hereunder. It had also very fat pastures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they used to send daily to Husum, and other places, a prodigious number of sheep, fowls, ducks, and geese, and great quantities of butter. It contained 21 or 22 parishes, and about 8000 inhabitants; but it has suffered prodigiously at several times by fatal inundations. In the year 1300 the little city of Rungholt, with several churches and villages, were carried away by the waves, which drowned also great numbers of people, as well as cattle. In 1532 there arose such a violent storm, that almost the whole island was overflowed; when 1600, or, according to others, 1900, persons perished in the water. The next year another storm damaged the dykes very much. From 1612 to 1618, there happened every year such inundations, as occasioned prodigious losses, and put the inhabitants to very great expence; and particularly in 1615, when 300 persons perished in the waves. They were afterwards free for some years, and had time to repair their banks and dykes; but all their care and precautions proved ineffectual against the storm that happened October the 11th, 1634. At ten of the clock at night the whole island lay under water, above 6000 persons were drowned, and, of all the inhabitants, there were hardly 1500 that saved their lives. The churches, which stood on the rising grounds, held out the storm indeed, but fell down afterwards; and 28 windmills were carried away by the waves. The loss of cattle of all sorts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 heads; and the dykes were broke in 44 different places. The whole island continued thus overflowed, except a small spot of ground which stood higher than the rest. Since that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the assistance of some Dutchmen, to regain part of the land they have lost.

Amron, or Amroen, is a small island to the north-west of Northstrand, from which it is about seven miles distant. It is in the form of a crescent, and is only considerable for its oyster fishery.

Fora, or Foehr, lies towards the north-east of Amron, and nearer the coast of Sleswic, between Northstrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorship of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about six miles in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle and corn, has about 4200 inhabitants, and several villages. The in-

habitants still preserve the language, manners, and dress of the ancient Frisians, though some of them speak the dialect of Lower Saxony.

SECTION IV.

Language, Religion, Learning, and Forms of Government of the Danes, ancient and modern.

THE language of the Danes, like that of the Norwegians, is a corrupted dialect of the Teutonic, and in pronunciation harsh and dissonant. It is intermixed with many Dutch, German and French words; but the French is the language of the court.

The established religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is considered as divided into six dioceses, viz. one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; but these are, in fact, no other than superintendencies; for they are without cathedrals, ecclesiastical courts, or temporalities. The principal business of their bishops, or rather superintendants, is to inspect the doctrines and morals of the inferior clergy. The superintendants are not distinguished from other ministers by their habit; the clerical dress consisting of a black gown with short sleeves, a round cap with flat edges, and a large ruff about the neck. The revenue of the bishop or superintendant of Copenhagen, which is the richest benefice in the whole kingdom, amounts to no more than 2000 rix-dollars, or about 510 l. sterling per annum. The clergy are wholly dependent on the government, and are obliged to act with the utmost submission and servility to the court. But to make amends for being obliged to be so obsequious to one class of people, they take care to shew their authority, and domineer over another class; for having acquired an absolute influence over the minds of the common people, they exercise a kind of spiritual tyranny over their consciences. The clergy, in general, preach without notes, and some of them lead very exemplary lives. Their churches are kept neater, and are more embellished with ornaments, than those of England; but the decorations are usually inelegant, and often absurd. This incongruous taste is very pointedly ridiculed by an ingenious traveller, who, in a letter dated from Copenhagen, says, "I have been in all the churches here, whether German, French or Danish; but it is not in the Lutheran places of devotion one must search for the productions of art or elegance. Madonas and Magdalenas are confined to Roman catholic walls. There is one church here, indeed, where they have placed six statues of plaister before the high altar. As they have armed two of these with monstrous gilt swords, as big as Charles the XIIth's, and a third is employed in blowing a trumpet, I must own I took them, at first sight, for a kind of guard drawn up to defend the place; but on a nearer approach I found (probably for fear of such a mistake) they had christened them all, and placed their names severally and respectively at their feet. To four of them they applied the Jewish appellations of the angels which occur in scripture, Gabriel, Uriel, Raphael, and Michael; but unhappily when they had got so far, having yet two figures remaining, and no more angelic titles, they seem to have been at a sad loss; as under one of them they have put the word cherub, but left it undetermined who he might be; and to the other they have affixed Jeremeill; but who that Jeremeill is continues uncertain.

The Danes have a great passion for sonorous music; hence their organists entertain the congregation for a considerable time, both before and after service. Thus it appears, that where the belles-letters find a difficulty in gaining ground, harmony will obtain an easy admittance; and people without taste, and who, in general, have but very crude notions of elegance, will still admire music.

"Man may justly tuneful strains admire,
His soul is music, and his breast a lyre;

" A lyre which, while its various notes agree,
 " Enjoys the sweets of its own harmony.
 " In us rough hatred with soft love is join'd,
 " And sprightly hope, with grovling fear combin'd,
 " To form the parts of our harmonious mind.
 " What ravishes the soul, what charms the ear,
 " Is music, though a various dress it wear.
 " Beauty is music too, tho' in disguise;
 " Too fine to touch the ear, it strikes the eyes.
 " 'Tis music heav'nly, such as in a sphere
 " We only can admire, but cannot hear.
 " Nor is the pow'r of numbers less below;
 " By them all humours yield, all passions bow,
 " And stubborn crowds are chang'd, yet know }
 not how.
 " Let other arts in senseless matters reign,
 " Mimic in brass, or with mix'd juices stain;
 " Music, the mighty artist, man can rule,
 " As long as it has numbers, he a foul." }

Though learning, from the attention given to various manufactures, and the science of agriculture, is at a low ebb in this kingdom, it has produced some few persons admirably eminent in the mathematical sciences, and the art of medicine, such as Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, Bartholines, &c. But the merit of these is to be considered as the effulgence of a comet, challenging the greater admiration, because so seldom seen. The small progress of the Danes in the sciences, however, appears also to result from a defective constitution, and an oppressive government; for the clergy and lawyers, as they are entirely dependant upon the court, and great lords of the kingdom, are most meanly subservient. It is true they fill their respective places in the scale of slavery, but they fill them as so many cyphers, or rather as so many machines, that are moved at the will of others.

As the ancient form of government in Denmark was the same which the Goths and Vandals established in most, if not all, parts of Europe, whither they carried their conquests, Denmark was, till lately, governed by a king, chosen by the people of all ranks; even the boors had their voices; which king Waldemar III. who reigned in 1334, acknowledged in his memorable answer to the pope's nuncio, who pretended to a great power over him: " Our being we have from God, our kingdom from our subjects, our riches from our parents, and our religion from the church of Rome; and if you grudge it us, we renounce it by these presents." The states of the realm being convened, were to elect, for their prince, such a person as to them appeared handsome, valiant, just, merciful, affable, a maintainer of the laws, a lover of the people, prudent, and adorned with all other virtues fit for government, and requisite for the great trust reposed in him; yet with a due regard to the family of the preceding king. If, within that line, they found a person thus qualified, or esteemed to be so, they thought it but a point of gratitude to prefer him before any other to this high dignity, and were pleased when they had reasons to chuse the eldest son of their former king rather than any of the younger, as well because they had regard to priority of birth, when all other virtues were equal, as because the greatness of his personal estate might put him above the reach of temptations to be covetous or dishonest, and enable him, in some degree, to support the dignity of his office. But if, after such a choice, they found themselves mistaken, and that they had advanced a cruel, vicious, tyrannical, covetous, or profuse person, they frequently deposed him, often-times banished, and sometimes destroyed him. This they did either formally, by making him answer before the representative body of the people; or if, by ill practices, such as making of parties, levying soldiers, contracting of alliances to support himself in opposition to the peoples' rights, he was grown too powerful to be legally contended with, they dispatched him, without any more

ceremony, the best way they could, and elected presently a better man in his stead; sometimes the next of kin to him; sometimes the valiant man that had exposed himself so far as to undertake the execution, or the killing of the tyrant; and, at other times, a private person of good reputation, who possibly least dreamt of such an advancement.

Frequent meeting of the states was a fundamental part of the constitution. In those meetings all matters relating to good government were transacted; good laws were enacted; all affairs belonging to peace or war, alliances, disposal of great offices, contracts of marriages for the royal family, &c. were debated. The imposing of taxes, or demanding of benevolences, were purely accidental; no constant tribute being ever paid, or any money levied on the people, unless either to maintain a necessary war, with the advice and consent of the nation, or, by way of free gift, to contribute to raise a daughter's portion; the king's revenue, at that time, consisting only in the rents of his lands and demesnes, in his herds of cattle, forests, services of tenants in manuring and cultivating his grounds, &c. customs upon merchandize being an imposition of late crept into this part of the world; so that he lived, like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his own estate, and eat not through the sweat of his subjects brows.

The business of the king was then to see a due and impartial administration of justice executed according to the laws; nay, often to sit and do it himself; to be watchful and vigilant for the welfare of his people; to command in person their armies in time of war; to encourage religion, arts, and learning: and it was his interest, as well as his duty, to keep fair with the nobility and gentry, and be careful of the prosperity of his subjects.

Such was the ancient form of government in this kingdom, which continued with little variation (excepting that the power of the nobles increased too much) till the year 1660, when, at one instant, the whole face of affairs was changed, the crown made hereditary, and the king absolute.

This singular revolution was thus brought about. After the peace with Sweden the whole nation was in a most calamitous situation; for the treasury was so much exhausted, that, when the army was to have been disbanded, there was no money to pay off the troops; hence the soldiery became insolent and licentious. At the same time the nobles were proud and tyrannical; the clergy discontented, from their want of importance, and the disrespect with which they were treated; and the commonalty quite desperate on account of the heavy taxes with which they had been oppressed to carry on the war.

At this crisis the states assembled to deliberate and redress the grievances of the nation, when it was proposed by the commons that an equal and equitable tax should be laid upon all persons indiscriminately, and without distinction, in an exact proportion to their respective circumstances. The nobles, however, strenuously pleaded their privileges, which they asserted, were a full exemption from their payment of any taxes whatever; and the commons as strenuously contended, that as the nobles engrossed and enjoyed the greatest part of the lands, wealth, honours, &c. in the kingdom, it was more particularly incumbent on them to bear their share of the common burthen, and to contribute to the general defence. The debates grew warm, and the altercation became violent. Each party conceived an implacable animosity against the other, and the passions of all were equally overheated. In the height of this ferment a nobleman, called Otto Cragg, stood up and, in a transport of rage, told the commons, that they neither understood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from such impositions, or the condition of themselves, who were no other than the slaves. These degrading expressions irritating the commons beyond all degree of forbearance, Nanfo

their speaker, started up, and, fired with indignation, swore that the nobility should repent their having considered the commons as vassals, and terming them slaves. Immediately the commons, or clergy and burghers, broke up the assembly, and marched under the auspices of their leaders to the brewer's-hall, and, in a few hours, resolved to make the king a present of an absolute power, and to render the crown hereditary in his family, so as that it might descend even to females, for want of male heirs. This resolution they accordingly put in execution the next day; and though the nobility hesitated at first on the matter, yet they were also obliged at length to comply, and in three days time the alteration was completed; so that the kings have been ever since, and are at present, absolute and arbitrary, not the least shadow of liberty remaining to the subject. All meetings of the estates in parliament are abolished. Nay, the very name of estates and liberty is quite forgotten; as if there had never been any such thing; the very first and principal article in the Danish law being, "That the king has the privilege reserved to himself to explain the law; nay, to alter and change it as he shall think proper." The consequences of this are obvious; frequent and arbitrary taxes, and commonly very excessive ones, even in time of peace, little regard being had to the occasions of them; so that the value of estates, in most parts of the kingdom, is fallen three-fourths: and it is worse near the capital city, under the eye and hand of the government, than in remoter provinces: poverty in the gentry, which necessarily causes extremity of misery in the peasants; partiality in the distribution of justice, when favourites are concerned; with many other mischiefs; being the constant effects of arbitrary rule in this and all other countries wherein it has prevailed.

In a word, it may be truly said, that the people of Denmark, with a rash and desperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful ministry and ambitious clergy, resigned their liberty and independence, and invested their sovereign with despotic power over their lives and fortunes.

From this time the kings of Denmark unite, in their persons, all the rights of the sovereign power; but not being able to exercise the whole themselves, they are obliged to delegate some part of the executive power to their confidential subjects.

The supreme court of judicature, for Denmark and Norway, is held in the royal palace at Copenhagen, the king being present; the tribunal of Holstein is held at Gluckstadt; and that for the duchy of Sleswic in the town of that name. The nod of the sovereign is decisive in the council, the members being obliged implicitly to obey his will, as they are removeable at his pleasure.

Every man, if he chuses it, may plead his own cause; and the proceedings are so summary, that a suit may be carried through all the courts, and finally decided in thirteen months.

Subordinate to the supreme court of judicature, at which the king presides, there are three other courts, viz. the land-Flag, or provincial court; the Herredsfogds, or district court; and the Bysogldis, or town court. Appeals lie from each of these courts to the other, according to superiority; and the final appeal to the supreme court, where an absolute decision is given by the king as the ultimate legislator.

The judges are appointed by the king, but removeable at pleasure. They are punishable for misdemeanors, that is, if the monarch thinks proper to deem their actions such; and thus royally condemned, are obliged to make reparation to the injured party. Their salaries, which are inconsiderable, are paid from the king's treasury, from fines, and from gratuities where sentence is passed. In Copenhagen are likewise an exchequer court, to try causes relative to the revenue; and a commercial court, to decide all differences respecting trade. The admiralty court manages all

marine disputes; and the chancellory executes all manner of business respecting treaties, alliances, &c.

The police in Denmark is very strict. At the entrance of many towns a whipping-post stands conspicuous, on the top of which the figure of a man is placed, with a sword by his side, and a whip in his right hand. Gibbets and wheels are also placed on eminences, on which the bodies of malefactors are sometimes left, after execution, to deter others from their crimes.

Some criminals are punished by being whipped in the market place, and banished. Some of the lower sort are punished by being led through the city of Copenhagen in what is called the Spanish mantles. This is a kind of heavy vest, something like a tub, with an opening for the head, and irons to enclose the neck. This mode of punishment is very much dreaded, and is one cause that night robberies are rarely heard of in Copenhagen.

The place of execution is out of the city. Decollation is deemed more honourable by the sword than the axe. This is the common mode of execution. But of some more heinous crimes the punishment is breaking on the wheels; and, on executing this on state prisoners, it has been the practice sometimes to begin with cutting off their right hands. Executions, however, are rare. A great number for child-murder are condemned to work in spin-houses for life, and to be whipped annually, on the day when, and the spot where, the crime was committed. This mode of punishment is dreaded more than death; and since it has been adopted, has greatly prevented the frequency of the crime. The punishment for grand-larceny is whipping, and slavery for life. Those who are condemned to slavery are distinguished by a brown coat, with red sleeves, and irons on one leg, with a chain fastened to their waists. They work on the fortifications, in summer, from five to eleven, and from one to six. Their bread is coarse and black. Besides an allowance of bread, they have a pay of one stiver (a penny) per day. They lie on barrack beds.

At Copenhagen the state prison is in the citadel. In this prison there are five or six rooms, about 15 feet by 14, with one window, and a case (or bed) in each. A traveller, who lately visited this kingdom, relates, that he observed here one prisoner who was guarded by an officer and soldier in the room, and another at the door, though the guard-room was below. The weather being then very warm, he was permitted to have the window open; and this is all the fresh air allowed state prisoners; for they are never suffered to go out of their rooms. The king makes them an ample allowance for diet. At the time of divine service their doors are open, and they hear it by an oblique perforation into the church, through the thick walls opposite to the doors.

The same traveller observed chains fastened to the walls in the close rooms, where the Counts Struensee and Brandt had been confined; and was informed that Struensee, who had been confined above three months, when he first came out, though in view of a terrible death, exclaimed, "O what a blessing is fresh air!" Here are some dark rooms for the punishment of soldiers, but no dungeons.

In the prison of the stat-house there were nine persons confined for crimes, and eleven for debt. The female criminals were at work in their several apartments, which were clean; but the male criminals were dirty and offensive. The allowance granted them is three marks (27 pence) per week. There are in this prison arched damp dungeons. A resident chaplain says prayers to the prisoners every day.

The blue-tower (the prison for the bailiwick and servants of the court) consists of four small rooms on three floors. There were in it eight men and two women. Their allowance is two pence a day, with which they purchase what they please of the gaoler, who keeps a public house, and has a salary from the court. Here, as well as in the prison at the stat-house, was observed the

the neatness of the women, whose rooms were a contrast to those of the mens. The reason is, that the gaolers wives inspect the apartments of their own sex, and are more attentive than their husbands.

The stock-house is near the ramparts. Here criminals from the garrison, and convicts from the different classes of the people, are condemned to slavery. There were seen in this place 143 slaves. They never put off their clothes at night; and as they have new clothes only once in two years, and are very slight, many of them were almost naked. Some had light chains on one leg, some heavy chains on both legs. Others had iron collars. One was chained by his wrist to a wheel-barrow. These were punishments inflicted upon those who had attempted to escape, or been obstreperous.

On the other side of the court, down ten steps, are seven arched dungeons, with one small window, in which were eleven prisoners, who lay on barrack beds. The distress and despair, in the pale and sickly countenances of these slaves, were shocking to humanity. The traveller before-mentioned went to the service of the chapel, where, of the few that attended, the man chained to the wheel-barrow was one. They sat together on benches, and soldiers were properly placed at different parts of the chapel; and two, with bayonets fixed, stood at the door. Service being ended the slaves first passed down. This prison was extremely offensive.

In the spin-house were about 3 or 400 prisoners, sorting, carding, and spinning wool for the king's manufactory in Copenhagen. In the court were seen several rooms, with one man in each, employed in either rasping or chopping log-wood. Sixty-six women were confined for life, and all employed in carding and spinning in one room. Several rooms are assigned to the sick.

The public executioner, though universally despised, is usually rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive culprits of life, but is the general contractor to empty all the jakes, and remove from houses, stables, streets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever.

In Copenhagen there is a master of the police, who superintends the council and civil affairs of the city; and such diligence and circumspection is used, that a person may walk through the whole city, at midnight, in perfect safety. To prevent fires, the chimney-sweepers are bound to keep a register of all the chimnies they sweep, that, in case of an accident, from a foul vent, the owner may be convicted or punished for his avarice or neglect.

The apothecaries of this kingdom are under excellent regulations; only two are allowed in Copenhagen, and one in all other towns of importance. They are licensed by the college of physicians, and confirmed by the king; and are obliged to keep an exact register of the drugs they sell, by whom prescribed, and to whom sold.

The code of Danish laws is so perspicuous and short, that it is contained in only one quarto volume, which is written in the language of the country, and divided into six books, which comprize these several particulars: The procedure of the courts of justice, ecclesiastical law, official and honorary law, maritime law, property law, and criminal law.

Denmark is divided into seven capital governments, each being under the direction of a governor appointed by the king, who is called *stifts-ampts-man*; and this *stifts-ampts-man*, or governor, is usually a court favourite.

Each of these seven capital governments is again subdivided into three smaller jurisdictions, called *ampts*; and the governors of these *ampts* are called *ampts-men*. But *stifts-ampts-men*, and *ampts-men*, are equally subservient to the court, and oppressive to the poor.

SECTION V.

Present State of Commerce, Coin, Revenue; Armament, Military and Naval, &c.

DENMARK is commodiously situated for carrying on an extensive commerce, but the subjects are prevented from availing themselves of it by the intolerable exactions of the great. When an industrious farmer here is situated upon a poor farm, which he is, by his great diligence and industry, endeavouring to cultivate and enrich, as soon as he has performed the laborious task, and expects to reap the profits of what he has sown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he should perform the same laborious task there, without any other emolument than what he shall think proper to give him. Hence many of the farmers, thus discouraged, scarce raise grain enough for their own consumption, but suffer their lands to run to pasture, on which they breed cattle; but, at the same time, these pastures will not bring cattle to perfection, as they are obliged to be sent to Holstein to fatten.

The commercial commodities of this country are chiefly fish, timber, tallow, pitch, tar, planks, skins, live cattle, horses, and, from some provinces, grain.

The money of Denmark is reckoned in rix-dollars and stivers; the first being 4s. 6d. each; the latter rather more than an English penny.

In 1012 an East India company was established in Denmark, and a settlement made at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast: but this East India trade, though it benefits individuals, is detrimental to the nation in general, as the Danes pay in specie for all their tea, porcelane, bale-goods, &c. not having natural productions, or manufactured goods, proper for those markets: and were it not for the small quantities of those goods which they send into Germany, Prussia, Courland, &c. and the teas which they occasionally smuggle, the whole country would soon be ruined by the company.

Christian VI. indeed, did the utmost in his power to benefit his country. He abolished the monopolies of wine, brandy, salt, and tobacco. He terminated the disputes which had long subsisted between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburg; instituted a council of trade; invited artists, workmen, and manufacturers from foreign countries, to settle in Denmark; established a bank; maintained a respectable fleet and army, &c. &c. and his son, Frederick the Vth. trod in his laudable footsteps: but in later times these prospects have been obscured by oppression, imprudence, faction, and party.

The revenues of Denmark arise from crown lands, taxes, and duties; and these are extremely heavy. The landholders pay dearly to the sovereign for the privilege of holding their lands, for the implements and liberty of cultivating them, and for every necessary article of life. All persons, not servants, (the clergy excepted,) pay eight shillings annually, as a capitation tax for themselves, the same for their wives, and the same for all their children who exceed twelve years of age. The clergy only are exempted, in consideration of the trouble they take in making out lists every year of all taxable persons within their respective parishes. Here is likewise a tax of four shillings upon every stable where horses are kept. There are some few exemptions from the general mode of taxation; but the person so exempted pays a particular tax, levied in a peculiar manner.

With respect to domestics, those who serve the nobility are thus taxed: stewards and housekeepers four shillings, footmen two shillings, and maid servants one shilling annually. Labourers pay yearly four shillings, and their wives two, if not hired servants.

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One of the most considerable articles in the revenue of Denmark is the money raised by a duty, or toll, paid by all ships which pass through the Sound into the Baltic; the Sound being a narrow strait between Schonen and the island of Zealand. On the Danish side stands the town of Helsingør, or Elsinør, and the castle of Cronenburg; and, on the Swedish side, the town of Helsingborg. Between these passes and repasses all the ships and vessels that trade to the Baltic. The Danes, by different treaties of peace, have expressly retained their title to the Sound, and receive toll from all ships and vessels that pass, those of Sweden excepted: yet they do not esteem the security of that title so firm as they could wish; for as they are not masters of the land on both sides, they may have the right, but not the power, to assert it upon occasion, and seem only to enjoy it during their good behaviour; as their strong neighbours, the Swedes, are able to make use of the first opportunity, or umbrage, to their prejudice; and this they could perhaps do with impunity.

The laws of nations always run a length
Proportion'd to their wealth, their powers, and strength:
The rules of equity are set at nought,
If, to back int'rest, forces can be brought;
For whatsoever politicians say,
Their int'rest points, and passions lead, the way.

The origin and nature of this toll are as follow. It was laid by the consent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a small sum for each ship that passed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coast, for the better direction of sailors in dark nights: hereupon this passage of the Sound became the most used; that of the Great Belt being, in a little time, quite neglected, as well because of the great convenience of those lights to the shipping that passed in and out of the east sea, as because of an agreement made, that no ship should pass the other way, to the end that all might pay their shares; it being unreasonable that such ships should have the advantage of those lights in dark or stormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards the maintaining of those fires, by passing another way in good weather. Besides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been so insignificant, considering the small sum which each ship was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge solely for the use and benefit of their own trading ships; because they were masters of so few, as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other Hans Towns, being the greatest traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches. But there being no fixed rule, or treaty, whereby to be governed, with regard to the different bulk of the ships belonging to so many different nations, the Danes began, in process of time, to grow arbitrary, and exacted smaller or greater sums, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with, or according to their friendship or discontent with those princes or states to whom the several ships belonged; therefore, the emperor Charles V. to ascertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was signed at Spire, on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his subjects of the Netherlands, who had great traffic in the Baltic; and agreed that, as a toll-custom in the Sound, every ship above 200 tons, and under, should pay two rose-nobles at its entrance into, or return from, the Baltic; and every ship above 200 tons, three rose-nobles. A rose-noble is worth about eighteen shillings sterling. This agreement remained in force till such time as the United Provinces shook off the Spanish yoke, when the Danes, taking advantage of those wars, raised their toll to an extravagant height, the troublesome times not affording the Dutch leisure to attend to the redressing such an exaction.

The toll at present, however, is greatly reduced, and much more reasonable; and if the principal maritime powers chose to dispute the matter, they certainly would have no occasion to pay it at all; for the Danes have not a sufficient naval strength to oblige either the English, or Dutch, to pay this toll, or pass through this passage, if they rather chose to shoot either of the Belts. Besides, the breadth of this Sound, in the narrowest part, is four English miles over, and every where of a sufficient depth; so that the king of Denmark's castles could not command the channel, was he master of both sides, much less now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, that this pretended sovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded on the inattention of some princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a considerable profit, though much less at present than it did formerly. About the year 1640 it produced 240,000 rixdollars per annum; but since 1645 it has not yielded above 190,000; some years not above 80,000. In 1691 it did not extend to full 70,000; and is now much less.

All people of rank, who have public employments, pay a sum, equivalent to ten pounds sterling, for the privilege of being married: people of rank, who have no public employment, pay at the rate of four pounds sterling; clergymen, citizens, free farmers, and the stewards of the nobility, pay sixteen shillings; mechanics eight shillings; and servants and labourers four shillings. Seamen, soldiers, and husbandmen, who are vassals, are exempted from this tax; and with very good reason, for they are totally unable to pay it; and some, indeed, have scarce a sufficiency to purchase the common necessaries of life.

There is a tax, or exemption subsidy, which, though exorbitant and oppressive, is cheerfully paid by all housekeepers that can raise the money, because, by the payment, they are exempted from having soldiers quartered on them. This tax is rated by the civil magistrates, according to the size, situation, rent, &c. of the house.

Besides the taxes to government, two more are paid by all citizens and burghers, for the support of their respective cities and towns, viz. a capitation tax, and a ground rent tax.

Here is also a heavy stamp-act; and taxes upon patents, commissions; a titular tax, paid by the nominal nobility, &c. From these various taxes, duties, imposts, and emoluments, the whole revenue of Denmark, at present, amounts to the annual value of about 1,200,000 l. and this is the utmost that government can possibly draw from the people, without draining the kingdom of the little money that remains in circulation.

The military strength of this kingdom consists of regular troops, militia, and navy.

The greatest part of the regular troops are foreigners, and more particularly Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well mounted, and consist of 11 regiments; and each regiment of four squadrons, including the body guards. Of these regiments three are quartered in Zealand, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and four in Holstein.

The infantry is composed of 16 regiments, of which two do duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each consists of two battalions, and each battalion contains six companies of 100 each.

The artillery consists of three regiments, one of which is stationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and a third in Holstein.

The body of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which comprizes 20 officers of various ranks. Since the reduction of the Danish forces, their numbers are 10,000 cavalry and dragoons, and 30,000 infantry and artillery; the whole of the regular troops comprizing 40,000.

Every person who cultivates or possesses 360 acres of land, is obliged to find one man for the militia, and

pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reserve, to be embodied and called out upon emergencies.

The Danish fleet is composed of about 30 ships of the line, and about 16 frigates; but these are usually kept in such bad repair, that the Danes would find a difficulty, upon an emergency, in fitting out 20 ships capable of putting to sea. To man this fleet there are two orders of seamen, viz. 30,000 who are constantly enrolled and retained, in times of peace, by a trifling annual stipend, and being exempted from the payment of certain taxes; and a second class, composed of four divisions, each division having a chief, and ten companies of 118 men each. These are commanded by a captain, who has two subaltern officers under him. In this class are a certain number of gunners, who have a kind of naval academy, and instruct the seamen. This second class, or order, contains about 4720 men, who are always ready for immediate service, and constantly kept in full pay. They are occasionally recruited from the enrolled seamen, and wear a blue uniform, faced with different colours, according to their respective squadrons and divisions.

The Danish men of war carry the same complement of men, in proportion to their guns, as the French ships of war do; but they are much inferior, in point of construction, both to English and French ships of war; and, indeed, are far from being equal to the Swedish ships.

A marine academy was instituted for the instruction of young cadets by Frederick IV. Appointments were made for 50 cadets to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, history, geography, geometry, several other branches of the mathematics, &c. In order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and successively to perform the service of common seamen, pilots, and officers. This noble institution, however, is now greatly, if not wholly neglected.

SECTION VI.

Ranks or Classes, different Manner of Living, Dispositions, Persons, Dress, Food, Customs, Diversions, Diseases, and Employments of the Danes. Divers Remarks, &c.

THE inhabitants of Denmark may be divided into five classes, viz. the nobility, who have privileged siefs in the kingdom. The titular nobility. Clergy, lawyers, and students. Merchants and citizens. Seamen, farmers, and labourers.

The superior classes are of an high spirit, and have as much vivacity in them as any people in Europe, the French alone excepted. The nobility in particular are shewy, fond of magnificence, and live in a mean between the English and the Germans; more sumptuous than the latter, but not with such a general consistency as the former. In their dress the French fashions are principally followed; and the language of that nation, as before observed, is universal among them. In their houses they are expensive, not only in the architecture, but also in the furniture, exceeding, in this respect, the Germans, but not equalling the English. At their tables they resemble the Germans most for cookery, but do not sit so long at their meals. In Germany four courses and a desert will hold, upon a moderate computation, four hours and an half, which, in England, are dispatched in one; but the Danes are between the two, seldom rising, however, under the two hours. Some of the nobility are very expensive in French cooks, but it is not general. In their wines they are particularly curious, both as to quality and variety. Their tables are admirably well served with fish, particularly of the fresh water kind; and sea fish is in great abundance, though not of the best sorts. Wild fowl they abound greatly in, and have a greater variety than in England. Their venison is excellent;

but their butcher's meat is not, on the whole, to be compared to that of the English. All the rich nobility have hot houses, and hot walls, fronted with glass, in their gardens; yet, for want of a complete knowledge in the management of the plants, their fruit, in general, is bad. In other sorts of provisions they are upon a par with their neighbours; and their importations of various eatables of luxury have much increased of late years.

The sigh that heaves by stealth, the starting tear,
The melting languish, the obliging fear;
Half-utter'd wishes, broken, kind replies,
And all the silent eloquence of eyes,
That teach the fair, by various wiles, to move
The soften'd soul, and bend the heart to love.
Proud of her charms, and conscious of her face,
The haughty beauty calls forth ev'ry grace;
With fierce defiance throws the killing dart;
By force she wins, by force she keeps the heart.
The witty fair a nobler game pursues,
Aims at the head, but the rapt soul subdues.
The languid nymph enslaves with softer art;
With sweet neglect she steals into the heart:
Slowly she moves her swimming eyes around;
Conceals her shaft, but meditates the wound:
Her gentle languishments the gazers move,
Her voice is music, and her looks are love.

Many of the second class, or titular nobility, are foreigners, and in particular Germans, who generally come hither very poor; but, by servilely attending the court, and falling into all the schemes of the favourite or minister, usually acquire wealth.

Those who compose the third class, as they are dependent on, are obliged to be subservient to, the court, and submissive to the minister and favourites.

The people of the fourth class are conceited and haughty, but at the same time servile and timid.

With respect to the fifth class, the seamen would be much more alert in their business, if they were better used; and act with greater spirit and courage, if they were not familiarized to fear, and trained, from their births, to the most abject slavery. The farmers are perfect vassals, and, by not being permitted to have any will of their own, become timid, careless, and indolent. If any of these happen to get a little money, they become perfect sots, and usually destroy themselves by intoxication; taking no delight in any thing but out-drinking their neighbour; and in this they exactly resemble the country squire described by Gay, who says,

Methinks I see him in his hall appear,
Where every table floats in clammy beer;
'Midst mugs and glasses, shatter'd o'er the floor,
Dead drunk his servile crew supinely snore.
Triumphant o'er the prostrate brutes he stands;
The mighty bumper trembles in his hands:
Boldly he drinks, and, like his glorious fires,
In copious gulps of potent ale expires.

Indeed, this vice of drinking to excess is almost general among the Danes. The labouring people are some of the most oppressed and miserable wretches in Europe.

These people seldom enter into quarrels with each other, although they are very fond of drinking, and smoking tobacco, which are of general use here, and doubtless contribute much to their health, and to the little vivacity they possess in the midst of such a cold and wet atmosphere.

The warlike genius for which the Danes were formerly celebrated is now totally lost. They are timid, suspicious, deceitful, dull, and, in general, stupid. To be more minute in their characters, an accurate writer says, "Their general character is a strange composition of pride and meanness, insolence and poverty." If any

any gentleman can find a purchaser for his estate, the king, by the Danish law, has a right to one third of the purchase money; but the lands are so burthened with impositions, that there would be no danger of alienation, even if this restriction was not in force. No person would offer money for an estate to be held upon such terms; and some gentlemen have actually offered to make a surrender to the king of large tracks of fertile land in the island of Zealand. Conscious that they enjoy their possessions, thus encumbered, at the nod of an arbitrary sovereign, they are at little or no pains to improve their estates; and they look upon trade as beneath their dignity. They therefore rack their tenants with the utmost oppression, in order to procure the immediate means of gratifying their vanity, gluttony, and extravagance. Those courtiers who derive money from their employments, instead of purchasing land in Denmark, remit their cash to the banks of Hamburg and Amsterdam. The merchants and burghers tread in the footsteps of their superiors, and spend all their gain in luxury and pleasure, with an impatient avidity, as if they were afraid of incurring the suspicion of affluence, and being stripped by taxation. The peasant, or boor, follows the same example; for no sooner as he earned a rix-dollar, than he makes haste to expend it in brandy, lest it should fall into the hands of his oppressive landlord. This lower class of people are as absolute slaves as the negroes in the West-Indies, and subsist upon much harder fare. The value of estates is not computed by the number of acres, but by the stock of boors, who, like the timber, are reckoned a parcel of the freehold."

The Danes, in person, are usually tall, strong, well-limbed, and tolerably featured; in general they have red, yellow, and light hair. In the summer they dress in light apparel; and, in winter, wear warm furs, or woollen cloathing. They feed upon stock-fish, salt meat, and other coarse diet. The only good piece of furniture in their houses is the feather-bed.

The Danes equally feast and make merry at marriages and funerals. The nobility pique themselves upon having sumptuous burials and monuments for their dead. The principal diversions of these people are being drawn in sledges upon the ice, during winter, and running at the goose on Shrove Tuesday. The king annually partakes of the pastime of stag-hunting, during which diversion he lays aside the trappings of royalty, and mingles, as an equal, with his nobles and attendants. Even the common people are indulged with very extraordinary freedoms at this time. When the hunting is over, about six in the evening the hunting assizes are held in the great court before the palace, where the stag, with great ceremony, is cut up by the huntsmen, who are cloathed in red, and have hunting-horns about their necks, while the hounds attend with the most clamorous impatience. Proclamation is made, that if any person has, that day, transgressed the laws of hunting, he should be immediately accused. Some individual is always selected for this purpose, tried, and found guilty. Then he is led by two gentlemen towards the stag, where he first kneels down between the horns. He is afterwards obliged to raise up his posteriors, on which an officer, with a large wand, inflicts a certain number of stripes, to the infinite diversion of the queen, ladies, and other spectators; during which the hounds open, and the huntsmen blow their horns, as if in concert, to proclaim the king's justice. The criminal having undergone this ludicrous chastisement, rises up, and makes a profound obeisance; and then the hounds are permitted to regale upon the stag they had run down.

Swan-hunting is another royal diversion, which the court enjoys in a small island near Copenhagen, where those birds breed in great numbers. Before the young ones are sufficiently fledged to take their flight, the king, queen, courtiers, &c. set out for this island in a number of pinnaces, enclose the haunt of the swans, and, with fowling-pieces, destroy them by thousands.

The flesh is never eaten, but the feathers and down belong to the king.

In many of their diversions the Danes follow the fashions of the French and English. Cards make a greater progress than formerly; and the wives of the nobility, and of such other classes as can afford it, have, at Copenhagen, their assemblies almost as regularly as any at London. The men are great chess players, it being a game they are very fond of, and which is more commonly introduced at their visits than in England. Billiards and tennis are also common at Copenhagen. The theatre is French; though they have established a Danish one, where pieces, translated from the English and French, are indifferently performed. Attempts have been made for an Italian opera, but with no success.

The people of Denmark are subject to apoplexies and epilepsies, which are owing to hard drinking, and low living. While the peasants are employed without doors, at their labour, the women are occupied at home in spinning yarn for linen, which is here made to a great degree of fineness and goodness. The cities and towns afford but bad accommodations to strangers, the taverns being poorly supplied; and a traveller, to be in any wise contented in this country, must carry with him a traveller's appetite and patience.

The titles and distinctions, of which the Danes are so fond, are partly annexed to military, civil, and ecclesiastical employments, and partly nominal. The various employments give a kind of dignity, during life, to those who hold them; and the nature of the employ fixes the rank between those who are in the same train; but it cannot decide the precedency between an officer, a magistrate, and an ecclesiastic; and therefore this is regulated by an ordinance for the etiquette or rank. With respect to the nominal ranks, nobility and title, the best information is thus given by a very intelligent writer: "As those whose offices are named in the edict, are supposed to be superior to those who have no employ, or whose employ is not classed in the ordinance, the desire, and even the want of having a rank, is the reason why simple titles, which are not annexed to any employment or emolument, are so much the objects of ambition. It is common, in this country, to obtain the title of an employment, which the person never exercises, and from which he never receives any pecuniary benefit, but even pays a considerable sum yearly for bearing the title: and very often those who have a certain rank by their employments, after some time, obtain titles superior to their respective functions. These titles are likewise sometimes imaginary; as thus, when a person has the title of counsellor of state, of justice, or of finances, it is not to be concluded from thence, that he has necessarily any part of the government of the state of justice, or of the public revenue, except the word *actual* is added to his character, otherwise it is only a nominal character which marks his rank. The king of Denmark has a great number of lords of the bedchamber, who pay about ten pounds sterling yearly for wearing a golden key, which gives them a considerable rank; and yet there are not ten paid for their attendance at court. To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. That of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg.

The badge of the former, which is the most honourable, is an elephant surmounted with a castle set with diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured ribbon, worn like the George in England. This order was instituted by Christian I. at his son's wedding. It is conferred only on persons of the highest quality; and the number of companies amount to thirty, besides the sovereign. The order of Daneburg, though less honourable, is much more ancient. This is bestowed, as an honorary reward, upon the noblesse of inferior rank; its insignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder, from which depends a small diamond cross, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto *Pietate & Justitia*, or piety and justice.

Here

Here is likewise a modern order of knighthood, called the order of St. Matilda, and instituted in honour of the late unfortunate queen; but it is now but little regarded, and consequently not aspired to or fought after.

SECTION VII.

HISTORY OF DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

THE original inhabitants of Denmark and Norway appear, from the most authentic intelligence that can be obtained, to have been colonies of the ancient Scythians, and were called by the appellation of the Cimbri. They had spread themselves through all the northern and western parts of Europe, and acquired their first fame from their celebrated expedition into Italy, their conquest of the Gauls, and succeeding enterprises against the Romans, till that people, roused by their ancient spirit, drove them back into their own country.

Little more is mentioned of those people for many years, when, it is said, that a great person, named Woden, or Oden, made himself sovereign of all the northern nations; and his abilities being equal to his courage, he not only subdued all around him as a general, and ruled the people for them as king, but formed a new religion for them as priest, and prescribed a code of laws as a legislator. Hengist and Horfa, who first brought over the Saxons into England, derived their lineage from him; and most of the royal and noble families of the northern parts of Europe, to this very day, pretend to trace their descent from him. Yet historians do not pretend to ascertain from whence this celebrated person came, or when he died, unless a very ridiculous and fabulous account of his death can be credited. They, indeed, say, that he lived about 60 years before the birth of Christ, and that he was the first who ever bore the title of king of Denmark.

Woden's progeny reigned after him in the several northern nations, and at length revenged the misfortunes and miscarriages of their ancestors upon the Romans, by gradually weakening, and at length overturning, the empire.

From Woden, the first Danish king, to Regner, surnamed Logbrog, who began his reign A. D. 750, the Danish chronicles mention 18 kings, but furnish us with little more than their names, or at least with only such fables as are too ridiculous and absurd for commemoration, or even recital, in this enlightened age.

The prodigious number of people who left this country in the fifth century, to join the armies which affected the conquest of the western empire, greatly weakened the kingdom. It recovered about the eighth century, when we find the Danes rise into importance as a maritime people, and harraßs the coasts of Courland, Livonia, Pomerania, Ireland, Scotland, France, and England. They even attacked the emperor Charlemagne, burnt his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, over-run Lower Saxony, Friezeland, Holland, and Flanders; conquered the greatest part of the kingdom of France; obliged her kings to pay an immense tribute; ravaged Spain and Italy, and committed many other depredations. Alfred the Great, king of England, was the first monarch who gave them any considerable check, by building a fleet to oppose their naval expeditions, and attack them on that element where they seemed to have such a manifest superiority.

At this time the greatest part of the people were bred up to the sea from their childhood, and had no ideas of the dangers to which they were exposed to this element. When a prince had attained the age of 18 or 20 years, he generally requested his father to have some ships equipped, by which he might attempt some glorious and useful exploit with his followers. This the father regarded as a mark of his rising courage, and of a great mind. A fleet was armed immediately, of which the admiral, and all his officers and men, made reciprocal promises never to return, except

loaded with spoils and laurels. If they had received any injury from a neighbouring nation, that nation was chosen for the first victim. Those whom they vanquished were generally put to death. Sometimes, indeed, they contented themselves with making slaves of them; and often, likewise, by a singular kind of generosity, or rather by a desire of signaling themselves, if they found themselves superior to the enemy which presented itself against them, they ordered off a part of their fleet, that they might fight the enemy with equal force, despising the gaining an advantage with superior numbers, and regarding it as an infamous practice to surprise an enemy in the night. Their vessels were always well provided with arms, and their men were all taught to swim, so that as they generally fought near the shore, they were often in a situation of securing themselves, although their vessels were destroyed.

The manner in which the lands were divided in Denmark and in Norway, shews us that the chief end of their government was to have a great maritime force. Every division, whether it was greater or less, took its name from the number of vessels that it could equip, and in some places their names are still in use. In the beginning of their maritime expeditions their fleets were not very considerable; but when their princes had enriched themselves by plundering their neighbours, they came to have 2 or 300 sail of ships of war, and each ship to carry from 100 to 120 men. To a nation that is wholly addicted to plunder and rapine, civil laws and a police are of very little use. This was strictly the case of Denmark when their king, called Gorman, came to the throne in the year 840. The few useful regulations which had been left them by Woden and others, were now laid aside, and the kingdom was divided among two or three princes, who governed with a very limited power: and that confusion which we find in the history of Denmark to this time, was occasioned by one historian writing the history of one prince who reigned in this country, and another the history of another prince who reigned at the same time. But Gorman, by uniting to his crown all the provinces of Denmark, of which his ancestors had been dispossessed, and being forced by the emperor to receive the Christian religion into his states, gave this government again some form; and from hence we may date the origin of the civil government which existed in this state for many years afterwards.

In the year 999 it is related that there was a general massacre of the Danes settled in England, which is still commemorated annually at Hocktide. Some are apt to doubt the truth of this fact; but however that be, certain it is, that Swein and his son, Canute, or Knute, made an entire conquest of this kingdom about the year 1014, though several battles were fought with the Saxon king Ethelred, and his son, Edmund Ironside, before the Danes could establish themselves here. Upon the death of Edmund Ironside, anno 1017, all the great men acknowledged Canute their king, swore allegiance to him, and renounced the two sons of Edmund, Edward and Edmund, who were banished into Sweden, from whence they went into Hungary, where they resided many years. King Canute, in the mean time, obliged the English to raise him 10,000l. every year, with which he paid his forces, and maintained his court: and in the year 1019 he conquered the kingdom of Norway. In the 15th year of his reign, anno 1031, he visited Rome, when he gave great part of the spoils of the countries he had conquered to that see, and returning to England, died at Shaftsbury, on the 12th of November, 1036, having divided his dominions between his three sons. To Harold he gave England, to Swein Norway, and to Canute Denmark. Harold died anno 1040, leaving neither wife or issue, and was succeeded by his brother Hardicanute, the third son of Canute, who died in the year 1042. This was the last king of the Danish race in England; for he was succeeded here by Edward, called the Confessor, son of king Ethelred.

Canute

Canute VI. subdued Vandalia, (the present Pomerania and Mecklenburg,) and took upon him the stile of king of the Vandals, which country continued subject to the Danes 27 years. He made a conquest also of Livonia.

Waldemar II. extended his dominions in Germany, and lived in great reputation in the beginning of his reign: but count Swein committing the care of his territories, as well as his wife, during his absence in the Holy Land, to his majesty's protection, he debauched the count's wife in his absence, of which her husband being informed at his return, took the king prisoner by a stratagem, and having confined him three years, made him pay 45,000 marks to obtain his liberty.

While the king was prisoner, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Lubeck, and Dantzick, revolted; the Teutonic knights took Livonia from him; and Adolph, the then count Schawenburg, subdued Holstein and Stomaria.

On the death of Olaus, without issue, anno 1387, queen Margaret, his mother, was elected queen of Denmark and Norway, who, having associated her nephew, Erick, with her in the government, subdued the king of Sweden; and it was enacted by the states that these three kingdoms should be united for the future under one prince; and, upon the death of queen Margaret, Erick became sole sovereign of the whole; but he was deposed on pretence of mal-administration, and retiring into Pomerania, lived a private life there till he died.

Christian, earl of Oldenburg, was elected anno 1439, and from him the present royal family of Denmark is descended. He subdued the kingdom of Sweden, which had revolted; and the emperor Frederick gave him the country of Holstein. This prince married his daughter Margaret to James III. king of Scotland, and gave him with her the islands of Orkney and Shetland, the last being a very valuable acquisition, as it affords the best herrings in these seas. Here the Dutch begin that fishery every year at Midsummer, without asking leave of the British court; though they paid 30,000l. annually for this privilege in the reign of king Charles I. Christian was succeeded by his son John, who divided the duchy of Holstein with his brother Frederick.

In the reign of Christian III. the Lutheran religion was established in Denmark. He was succeeded by his son Frederick II. anno 1538. Christian IV. his son, being engaged in a war with Sweden, in order to obtain peace, was compelled to yield up the province of Holland to the Swedes.

Frederick III. his son, was besieged in his capital city of Copenhagen by Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, who drew his artillery over the ice into the province of Zealand; and if the Dutch had not come to his assistance, would probably have made a conquest of that island. But though this prince was unfortunate in his wars with foreigners, he raised his prerogative to that height, that he perfectly subdued his subjects, and, from a limited elective monarchy, made himself an absolute prince, and established the hereditary succession of the crown in his family in the year 1660.

In our account of the forms of government of the Danes, both ancient and modern, (contained in Section IV.) we have stated, at large, the principal causes which brought on the very material change from the ancient to the modern mode of government in this kingdom, and which being effected in the reign of the prince under immediate consideration, we briefly insert here. It thence appears, that the ordinary class of people, thinking themselves aggrieved, in alone sustaining the burthen of most enormous taxes, levied for carrying on the war with Sweden, had applied to the superior class for relief, by their taking a part in the same. Receiving, with a peremptory denial, the keenest taunts, couched in the haughtiest and most

degrading terms, the common people, under countenance of the clergy, as their only resource, applied to the king for redress of the grievance in vain complained of to the nobles, making him a tender, at the same time, of despotic power, and the right of hereditary succession. Charmed with the proposal, Frederick, to awe the nobles into compliance, called in the aid of the military, to enforce the requisition of the commons; and so effectual were these means, that the nobles, finding it in vain to contend with the king, the clergy, and the commons, thus united, were under a necessity of acquiescing in that part of the resolution which referred to the hereditary succession of the crown in the family of the king, though they wished to evade that which referred to their bearing a part of the national burthens. Being given, however, to understand, that the most unreserved compliance was insisted on, they formally, by oath, ratified every clause and part of the resolution of the commons, acknowledging Frederick III. supreme and absolute monarch of Denmark, Norway, &c. and the crown of those kingdoms hereditary in his family according to lineal descent.

Christian V. succeeded his father Frederick III. anno 1670, and being joint-sovereign of Holstein and Sleswic, with the duke of Holstein, in order to exclude the duke from his share in those provinces, or at least to oblige the duke to acknowledge his dependence on the crown of Denmark, treacherously invited him to an entertainment, and then made him prisoner, and sent detachments of his army to take possession of such towns as belonged to him; with which the duke reproaching him, the king answered, he was always in the interest of Sweden, and never to be trusted; and unless he would renounce his right to certain places, he would take possession of the whole country; and particularly demanded of him an order to the commander of Tonningen, the strongest fortress belonging to the duke, to surrender it to his majesty's troops; which the duke consented to, apprehending the king would have taken his life if he had refused, and Tonningen was thereupon delivered up to the Danes. Several other articles he was obliged to sign, that were very prejudicial to him: but the duke making his escape to Hamburg, protested against the validity of all the acts he had been obliged to sign. The king thereupon gave orders for the demolishing Tonningen, and sequestered the duchy of Sleswic, causing both magistrates and people to swear allegiance to him, declaring them absolved from their allegiance to the duke. He also caused all the duke's revenues to be brought into his own treasury, continued garrisons in his towns, and even in his palace of Gottorp. But not knowing how soon he might be obliged, by the duke's allies, to deliver up what he had so unjustly seized, he exacted contributions from the poor subjects, to the value of many millions, to the ruin of as flourishing a province as any in Germany, whereby he filled his own treasury, and disabled the duke's subjects from giving him any assistance. The duke remained still at Hamburg, from whence he sent his son to the German princes to implore their assistance. He applied to the court of England, which was guarantee of the peace of the north, but to very little purpose, till the king of Sweden, Charles XI. undertook his cause in the year 1689, and was about to have transported an army into Germany, for his restoration. The German princes, and the English and Dutch, who were now entered into a confederacy against France, being apprehensive that this might disturb the peace of the empire, and divert the troops from the French war, held several conferences on this subject at Altena; and, at length, obliged the king of Denmark to restore the duke of Holstein his dominions, after he had been in possession of them 13 years; but took no care that the Dane should make him any satisfaction for the devastation of his territories. From the conclusion of the differences between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein

Holstein at Altena, by the mediation of the confederates in 1689, to the year 1696, things remained tolerably quiet: but the late duke of Holstein, Christian Albert, dying about that time, and the king of Denmark having sent a deputation to his son and successor, duke Frederick, to renew the union between them, and to let him have a sight of the late duke's will, that he might see if there was any thing in it in favour of the eldest prince, in relation to the ducal part of the duchy of Sleswic, the duke refused both the one and the other; alledging, that the treaty of Altena, in 1689, had not been observed, or justice done to the ducal house, particularly in restoring the feigniory of Gottes-Gabre, in the island of Aroa.

The guarantees of the treaty of Altena, seeing both sides inclined to a rupture, interposed their good offices, and engaged them to settle conferences for composing their differences, which were held at Penen-burg: but the duke continuing to introduce Swedish forces into Holstein, and build and enlarge his fortifications during the time of the treaty, the king of Denmark marched an army into the country, and caused the new fortifications to be demolished in the year 1697, which the duke, at that time, not finding himself in a condition to oppose, thought fit to acquiesce in, till the death of the then king, which happened the 4th of September, 1699, when he was succeeded by his son, Frederick IV. This the duke looked upon as a favourable opportunity to rebuild the fortifications which had been destroyed, especially as having married the king of Sweden's sister, and being assured of support from that crown. He began, therefore, to repair the fortifications of his demolished forts, as he insisted he had a right to do by the treaty of Altena, and introduced into the country a considerable number of Swedish troops, to prevent their being demolished again. The mediators and guarantees of the treaty of Altena employed their good offices to prevent a rupture, and proposed that both the Swedes and the Danes should withdraw their troops out of Holstein, and that the fortifications should not be proceeded in till the matter was settled by a treaty.

But the Dane being determined on a war, both with Sweden and Holstein, and having entered into a confederacy both with Russia and Poland for that end, would not hearken to any pacific measures. On the contrary, he ordered his general, the duke of Wirtemburg, to demolish Husum, Frederickstadt, and other places belonging to the duke of Holstein, which he soon after effected. Not content with razing such new fortifications as had been erected he, invested Tonningen, in which General Bannier commanded with a garrison of 5000 men. Upon this the princes guarantees gave the king of Denmark to understand, that since he had rejected all friendly proposals, they should no longer see the treaty of Altena broken, or suffer the duke of Holstein to be dispossessed of his country again, under the pretence of opposing the building of forts which were already demolished. The duke of Holstein also published a manifesto, shewing the right he had, by the treaty of Altena, to build fortifications in his dominions, and the injustice of the Danish invasion. Not only the German princes, but the Dutch now joined their forces with the Swedes, in order to bring the Dane to reason; and as they were marching towards Tonningen, the Danish general thought fit to raise the siege, without coming to a battle. The English and Dutch also sent each of them a squadron into the Baltic, and, joining the Swedish fleet, compelled the Danes to retire into the harbour of Copenhagen. In the mean time the young king of Sweden landed with 15,000 horse and foot upon the island of Zealand, about three miles to the southward of Elsenour, and was preparing to invest Copenhagen, when the Dane, finding himself overpowered, was glad to accept of such terms as the princes guarantees, who at this time held their conferences at Travendale, were pleased to prescribe.

By this treaty, which was concluded the 18th of August, 1700, it was agreed, that the house of Holstein should continue independent sovereigns in Holstein and Sleswic; and the crown of Denmark should pay the duke of Holstein 260,000 crowns for the damages they had done him. A misunderstanding, however, happened between the two courts the year following; one part of the chapter of Lubeck chusing the brother of the duke of Holstein coadjutor, and successor to their bishop, and the other chusing the king of Denmark's son. The bishop dying anno 1705, the king of Denmark determined to make good his son's election to that bishopric by force, and took several places belonging to Lubeck; but the court of Great Britain interposing, the duke of Holstein's brother was afterwards confirmed in the possession of the bishopric of Lubeck, in consideration of a subsidy granted by Great Britain to Denmark, for a body of Danish troops to join the allies against France, which they could not have had, if the war had been revived at that time in the north; one article in this treaty being, that the duke of Holstein should permit that body of Danes to pass through his territories, and join the confederates. The duke of Holstein having been killed at the battle of Lissau in Poland, anno 1702, and succeeded by his son Charles Frederick, an infant of two years old, the duke of Holstein Eutin, brother to the late duke of Holstein Gøttorp, and afterwards bishop of Lubeck, was constituted regent of Holstein during his nephew's minority.

Charles XII. of Sweden, being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, anno 1709, Frederick, king of Denmark, immediately joined his former allies, the Czar, and Augustus, king of Poland, and recalled the Danish troops which were in the emperor's service in Hungary, and quartered them in Holstein. He transported 10,000 men from Norway to Denmark, levied new troops at Hamburg, and fitted out a strong squadron of men of war. Having assembled an army of 18 or 20,000 men, the king of Denmark, on the 28th of November, 1709, published a manifesto to justify this intended enterprize, setting forth, that the ambitious designs of the king of Sweden, who had, for a succession of years, evinced the most hostile intentions against him and his subjects, as well as arrogated to himself titles derogatory to the crown of Denmark, had compelled him to declare war against all the territories of Sweden, except those in Germany; and embarking 6000 horse and dragoons, and 12,000 foot, he made a descent upon Schonen, landing at Helsingburg, the 12th of November, 1709: but it being winter time, he only took up his quarters in the country towns at first, and invited the people of Sweden to join him, waiting for a proper season to enter upon action, which gave the Swedes time to put themselves in a posture to defend their country.

About the middle of January, through favour of a hard frost, the Danes advanced towards Christianstadt, where a battalion of Saxons, which were in garrison, laid down their arms, and went over to the Danes, so that the town fell into their hands. They afterwards made themselves masters of Carelshaven, in the province of Bleking, and threatened Carelscroon, where the Swedish fleet and magazines were laid up. At the same time a strong detachment extended themselves towards Holland on the western side of Schonen; and their forces receiving frequent supplies, their army was considerably increased, and became very formidable. But the Swedish general, count Steinboch, having assembled 18,000 or 20,000 men, and marching towards Helsingburg, as if he intended to cut off the communication of the Danes with that place, they immediately abandoned all their conquests, quitting Carelshaven and Christianstadt, and retreated to Helsingburg, near which place the armies came to an engagement, and the Danes were entirely defeated. A day or two after they quitted Helsingburg, transporting the remainder of their troops to Denmark in the night, which, after their

their ill success, did not amount to above 6000 or 7000 men. Thus ingloriously ended the king of Denmark's expedition against Schonen.

The Danes having been disappointed in their enterprize upon Schonen, the next year joined the troops of king Augustus and the Czar, and fell upon Swedish Pomerania, laying waste the whole country; and the Swedish forces not being strong enough to oppose these united powers, retired into Stralsund, the isle of Rugen, and other places of security. The king of Denmark, while the Russians and Saxons blocked up Stralsund, passed the Elbe, and entered the duchy of Bremen, where the Swedish general not having a sufficient body of troops to oppose him, the Dane took the town of Staden, and made himself master of the whole country. In their return the Danes insulted the city of Hamburg, threatening them with a bombardment; to avoid which the burghers were compelled to raise them 230,000 rix-dollars. Count Steinboch, the Swedish general, found means afterwards, on the 22d of December, 1712, to engage the Danes singly, when they were separated from their allies near Wismar; and having given them a total defeat, pursued them into Holstein, seized the magazines the Danes had laid up there, and put the Danish Holstein under contribution. From hence he marched to Pinenburg, near Hamburg, where he determined to burn the Danish city of Altena; not so much by way of retaliation, or revenge for the many Swedish cities destroyed by the Danes, and their allies the Russians and Saxons, (as he declared in a memorial published on this occasion,) as to deter them from committing the like barbarities for the future.

The Danes, Saxons, and Russians, being now joined, to the number of 50,000 men, and marching towards count Steinboch, whose army did not consist of above 14 or 15,000, he found himself under a necessity of retiring into the ducal Holstein, whither the allies followed, and at their entering he threw himself into Tonningen, and by that means avoided them for that time. The Dane afterwards made a pretence for seizing the duke of Holstein's dominions, alledging, that the governor of Tonningen admitted general Steinboch into the place by the direction of his master the duke of Holstein, (who was not at that time above 12 years of age,) this occurrence happening in February, 1712-13. However that be, the confederates blocked up the city of Tonningen till May following; and the Swedes not being in a condition to send general Steinboch any reinforcements or supplies, he was obliged to surrender himself and his little army, consisting of 9000 men, prisoners of war, on condition of keeping their cloaths and baggage, and being exchanged or ransomed the first opportunity; and thus, for a little time, the war seemed to be at an end in Germany. But the allies the next year investing Stetin, the king of Prussia so managed the matter, that, by the agreement of the Czar and the Swedish governor, the town was sequestered into the hands of his Prussian majesty, and agreed to be garrisoned by an equal number of Prussians and Holsteiners, but was to be restored to the king of Sweden at the end of the war.

In the latter end of November, 1714, the king of Sweden returning out of Turkey, arrived at the city of Stralsund, and found a league was formed against him, in which the kings of Denmark, Prussia, and Poland, and the king of Great-Britain, as elector of Hanover, were parties; the avowed design whereof was to preserve the peace of Germany, which was proposed to be done by securing the sequestration of Stetin to the king of Prussia, and the possession of Bremen and Ferden, and whatever else the Dane had seized of the dominions of Sweden in Germany, to the Dane, and those to whom he should or had assigned his interest in those conquests. The king of Sweden thought it highly unreasonable that he should not be permitted to recover those territories again, which had been surprised in his absence. The kings of Prussia and Eng-

land insisted, that the restoring to the king of Sweden these territories, would embroil the north of Germany in a war, and joined in a confederacy against the king of Sweden, who had before powerful allies to contend with.

The king of Prussia, on the 28th of April, 1715, proclaimed war against Sweden, disarmed the regiment of Holstein, which was in Stetin, entering upon that city as a conquest from Sweden, and holding it no longer in sequestration. The Danes and Prussians soon after assembled their forces to the number of 60,000 men, and appeared before Stralsund, under the walls of which city the king of Sweden found himself obliged to retire, his army not consisting of more than a fourth part of the enemy's number.

In the month of July a treaty was set on foot between the king of Denmark and the court of Hanover, by which the king of Denmark stipulated to convey and deliver up Bremen and Ferden, which he had taken from the king of Sweden, to the elector of Hanover, in consideration of the elector's entering into the war against Sweden, and advancing a sum of money to his Danish majesty. The confederates before Stralsund being joined by 24,000 Russians, and a body of Saxons, carried on the siege of that town with great vigour; but finding the place continually received fresh supplies and reinforcements from the island of Rugen, which lies over-against it, they landed a great body of troops on the island; and, after a sharp dispute, in which the king of Sweden was in person, made themselves masters of it on the 17th of November.

Still the king of Sweden determined to defend the town to the last extremity; and it was a terrible winter's siege, the centinels being frequently frozen to death at their posts. The attacks were desperate, and in one of them the confederates lost near 1000 men; however, they prevailed by their numbers at length; and the king of Sweden, finding the town not tenable, retired in a light frigate, and arrived safely in Sweden, giving the governor orders to capitulate, which he did the latter end of December, upon very honourable terms; and both the town and the island of Rugen were put into the possession of the king of Denmark; and all the inhabitants of the Swedish Pomerania were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, except those of the city and district of Stetin, the islands of Usedom and Wollin, and the lands between the Oder and the river Pene, which were left in the hands of his Prussian majesty.

The city of Wismar, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, the only town which the Swedes had left in Germany, was invested by the Danes, Prussians, Hanoverians, and Russians, the next spring, and obliged to surrender, after which the king of Denmark was left in the possession of it; and thus ended the war in Germany.

The Danes and Russians then made mighty preparations for invading the king of Sweden's dominions in Schonen. The Czar went in person to Copenhagen for that purpose, whither his generals led an army of 30,000 horse and foot. The Danes also assembled between 20 and 30,000 of their troops for this expedition, and had prepared 7 or 800 vessels to transport them. But great part of the Danish fleet being employed in Norway during the summer, to oppose an enterprize of the Swedes on that side, all these preparations were ineffectual. Upon this the Czar upbraided the king of Denmark, that his fleet was not ready in time; and the Dane retorting on the Russian monarch, that he would not make the descent in the latter end of the year, which the Czar observed was impracticable. This altercation produced animosity between them, so that the Dane drew up his forces under the cannon of Copenhagen, as if he had some jealousy of his old ally, and the Czar soon after returned with his troops to Germany.

The Danish monarch being now left almost alone to defend himself against the Swedes, was threatened in his

his return, with an invasion of Zealand by his Swedish majesty, which had certainly been put into execution, had not the king of Great Britain been under some apprehensions that those preparations of the Swedes were intended against his British dominions, or rather for the recovery of Bremen and Ferden, and thereupon sent a squadron of men of war to the assistance of his Danish majesty, which put an end to the king of Sweden's intended enterprize against Zealand.

The following year, 1718, the Swedes marched two armies into Norway; one to the northward, as high as Drontheim; and the other, led by the king in person, towards Christiana, laying the whole country under contribution, there being no army in Norway strong enough to oppose them. But the Swedish monarch, laying siege to Frederickshall, was unfortunately shot in the trenches, and the Danes and Hanoverians thereby delivered from their fears: for had the Swedes made themselves masters of Frederickshall, as it was computed they might have done in a fortnight more, all Norway had been irrecoverably lost; and the Danish dominions reduced to a very narrow compass.

By the death of the king of Sweden the war between Denmark and that crown was in a manner brought to a conclusion; though the peace was not formally signed till the year 1720, when the Swedes, being invaded and distressed by the Russians, were obliged to accept of such conditions as the mediators and guarantees of it, the kings of Great Britain and France, were pleased to prescribe. By the fifth article of this treaty the king of Denmark obliged himself not to assist the Czar against Sweden, or permit the Russian men of war to enter his ports. By the sixth article the Swedes obliged themselves not to oppose such measures as should be taken by the said mediators in behalf of the king of Denmark, in relation to the dominions of the duke of Holstein. By the seventh article the king of Denmark promised to deliver up to Sweden the city of Stralsund, and part of Pomerania, as far as the river Pene; to evacuate the fortrefs of Marstrand, the isle of Rugen, and all other islands taken by the Danes in the late war; as also the town of Wismar in Mecklenburg: in consideration whereof the Swedes, by the ninth article, renounced the privilege of passing the Sound without paying toll, and agreed to pay the same toll as the English and Dutch. And by the tenth article the crown of Sweden engaged to pay to the king of Denmark 600,000 crowns before the abovesaid places should be delivered to the Swedes. By a separate article it was agreed, that Wismar, the fortifications whereof were demolished, should never be fortified again. As to Bremen and Ferden, these provinces had been confirmed to his Britannic majesty by another treaty. By the abovesaid treaty his Danish majesty obtained the guarantee of the French king for the possession of the duchy of Sleswic; and the king of Great Britain removed his guarantee of that duchy, which he had given by a former treaty.

The king of Denmark now reigning in peace, applied himself to promoting the trade of his kingdom; but had the misfortune to see his capital city of Copenhagen almost destroyed by a fire, which happened in the year 1728. His first queen was the princess Louisa, daughter of Augustus Adolphus, duke of Mecklenburg, by whom he had issue, prince Christian, born December 10, 1699; and Charlotte Amelia, born October 6, 1706; and other children, who died in their infancy. His second wife, the daughter of count Raventlau, his chancellor, he married within four days after the decease of his first queen, and died the 13th of October 1730, in the 61st year of his age.

Christian VI. his son, married Sophia Magdalena of Brandenburg-Culmbach, by whom he had issue, Frederick V. born March 31, 1723, and the princess Louisa, born Oct. 19, 1726, and married Oct. 1, 1749, to the duke of Saxe-Hilburghausen. He began his reign with some popular acts, particularly in abolishing the monopo-

lies for the sole vending of wine, brandy, salt and tobacco, which were very grievous to the subject. In the year 1732 he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg, whereby he obtained their guarantee for his own dominions, and guaranteed the dominions of those powers, and the pragmatic sanction: and by a separate article in this treaty, king Christian agreed to pay the duke of Holstein 100,000 rix-dollars, on his renouncing his right to the duchy of Sleswic; and, in pursuance of his treaty, anno 1734, he sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor against the French. In 1736, he relinquished his pretensions to the city of Hamburg, on their paying him 500,000 marks of silver.

About the same time he erected a council of trade, to examine all proposals that should be made for the advantage of it; and invited foreigners, skilled in manufactures, to resort to Denmark, and established them there, prohibiting the importation of foreign manufactures. He erected a bank also, in imitation of England and Holland, and concluded treaties of subsidy with foreign powers, particularly with England, which country was at the charge of raising, cloathing, and paying 6000 of his troops; and yet, when their service was wanted, withdrew those troops, and would take no part in the ensuing wars between the powers of Europe.

The Danes, about the year 1739, seizing on the lordship of Steinhurst, which his British majesty apprehended himself entitled to, as duke of Lawenburg, a skirmish happened between the troops of Hanover and those of Denmark, wherein several were killed on both sides. The Hanoverians recovered the territory in dispute. However, as the Danes seemed determined not to relinquish their claim, a treaty was set on foot between those powers, and Britain agreed to pay a subsidy to the Danes for permitting the Hanoverians to enjoy Steinhurst.

The Danes also had a quarrel with the Dutch for fishing upon the coast of Iceland. Their guard-ships seized on some of the Dutch fishing vessels, and carried them to Copenhagen; but the Hollanders threatening to make reprisals, those vessels were released.

Christian having reigned 16 years, with great reputation, was succeeded by his son Frederick V. on the 26th of July, 1746. This prince trod in his father's foot-steps, encouraging the manufactures, extending the commerce, and improving the trade of his country. He was first married to the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty. Upon the death of his queen, who was the mother of his present Danish majesty, he again married a daughter of the duke of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, and died in 1766, being succeeded by his son.

Christian VII. the present king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; married in 1766, to the princess Caroline Matilda; and has issue; Frederick, prince royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768; and Louisa Augusta, princess royal, born July 7, 1771. The reign of this young monarch opened auspiciously; but was afterwards darkened by a fatal event, which occasioned much astonishment to all Europe, and of which we shall give the following account in the words of an intelligent gentleman, who made the most minute enquiries concerning it, of the most cool and dispassionate Danes, and wrote this narrative in the metropolis of Denmark. "I have (says this gentleman) made it my endeavour, since my arrival here, to gain the most authentic and unprejudiced intelligence respecting the late celebrated and unhappy favourite count Struensee, and the late extraordinary revolution which expelled a queen from her throne and kingdom, and brought the ministers to the scaffold. Struensee had not any noble blood in his veins; or, consequently, any hereditary and prescriptive title to the immediate guidance of the affairs of state. Fortune, and a train of peculiar circumstances, coinciding with his own talents and address, seem to have

have drawn him from his native mediocrity of condition, and placed him in an elevated rank. He originally practised physic at Altena, on the Elbe, and afterwards attended the present king of Denmark, on his travels in England, in quality of physician. On his return he advanced, by rapid strides, in the royal favour; and seems to have eminently possessed the powers of pleasing, since he became equally the favourite of both king and queen. He was invested with the order of St. Matilda, instituted in honour of her majesty, created a count, and possessed unlimited ministerial power. His conduct, in this sudden and uncommon eminence, marks a bold and daring mind; perhaps, I might add, an expanded and patriotic heart. Unawed by the precarious tenure of courtly greatness, and more peculiarly of his own, he began a general reform. The state felt him through all her members: the finances, chancery, army, navy, nobles, peasants, were all sensible of his influence. He not only dictated, but penned his replies to every important question or dispatch; and a petition or scheme of public import and utility, rarely waited two hours for an answer.

"The civil judicature of this capital was then vested in 30 magistrates. Struensee sent a message to this tribunal, demanding to know the annual salary or pension annexed to each member. Rather alarmed at this enquiry, they sent an answer, in which they diminished their emoluments near two thirds, and estimated them at 1500, instead of 4000 rix-dollars. The count then informed them that his majesty had no further occasion for their services; but, in his royal munificence and liberality, was graciously pleased to continue to them the third part of their avowed incomes, as a proof of his satisfaction with their conduct. He, at the same time, constituted another court, composed only of six persons of integrity, to whom the same power was delegated. He proceeded to purge the chancery and other bodies of the law. Then entering on the military department, he, at one stroke, broke all the horse-guards, and afterwards the regiment of Norwegian foot-guards, the finest corps in the service, who were not disbanded without a short but very dangerous sedition.

"Still proceeding in this salutary, but most critical and perilous achievement, he ultimately began to attempt a diminution of the nobles, and to set the farmers and peasants at perfect liberty. No wonder that he fell a victim to such measures, and that all parties joined in his destruction. These were his real crimes, and not that he was too acceptable to the queen, which only formed a pretext. It was the minister, and not the man, who had become obnoxious. I do not pretend, in the latter capacity, either to excuse or condemn him; but, as a politician, I rank him with the Clarendons and Mores, whom tyranny, or public business, and want of time, have brought, in almost every age, to an untimely and ignominious exit; but to whose memory impartial posterity have done ample justice. Though Struensee does not appear to have made a bad use, yet he certainly made a violent and imprudent one, of his extensive power. He seems, if one may judge by his actions, to have been intoxicated with royal favour, and accumulated honours, and not to have adverted sufficiently to the examples which history furnishes of Wolfseys in former days, and of Chiosseuls in modern times, who most strikingly evince the slippery foundation of political grandeur. When he was even pressed, only a short time before his seizure, to withdraw from court, and pass the Belts, with the most ample security for his annual remittance of forty, fifty, or even an hundred thousand dollars, an unhappy fascination detained him, in defiance of every warning, and reserved him for the prison and the block. The queen-dowager, and prince Frederick, were the only feeble instruments to produce this catastrophe, as being, by their rank, immediately about the person of the sovereign; though common report has talked loudly of the former's intrigue, and attributed it to her imaginary abilities. The only mark of capacity, or address, they

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exhibited, was in preserving a secrecy which deluded Struensee, and the queen Matilda, till the time of their being arrested. On the last levy-day preceding this event, the count was habited with uncommon magnificence, and never received greater homage, or court servility, from the crowd, than when on the verge of ruin. On the night fixed for his seizure there was a bal paré in the palace. The queen, after dancing, as usual, one country dance with the king, gave her hand to Struensee during the rest of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. The moment was now come; the queen-dowager, and her son prince Frederick, hastened to the king's private chamber, where he was already in bed. They kneeled down beside him, and implored him, with tears and expostulations, to save himself and Denmark from impending destruction, by arresting those whom they called the authors of it. It is said the king was not easily induced to sign the order, but did it with reluctance and hesitation. At length their entreaties prevailed, and he affixed his sign manual to the paper. Colonel Koller Barmer instantly repaired to Struensee's apartment, which, as well as Brandt's, was in the palace: they were both seized at nearly the same instant, and, as all defence was vain, hurried away immediately to the citadel. When count Struensee stepped out of the coach, he said, with a smile, to the commandant, "I believe you are not a little surprized at seeing me brought here as a prisoner." "No, and please your excellence, (replied the old officer bluntly,) I am not at all surprized; but, on the contrary, have long expected you." It was five o'clock in the morning when count Rantzaw came to the door of her majesty's anti-chamber, and knocked for admittance. One of the women about the queen's person was ordered to wake her, and give her information that she was arrested. They then put her into one of the king's coaches, drove her down to Elsfeneur, and shut her up in the castle of Cronenburg. Mean while they dreaded an insurrection in Copenhagen: every military precaution was taken to prevent it: the most infamous and silly reports were circulated among the populace, to render the state prisoners odious: that they had put poison into the king's coffee to destroy him; that they intended to declare him incapable of governing; to send the dowager-queen Juliana out of the kingdom, as well as her son prince Frederick; and to proclaim Matilda regent. To confirm these extraordinary and contradictory reports, the king himself, and his brother, appeared in a state-coach, and paraded through the streets of the city, to shew himself unhurt, and as if escaped from the most horrid conspiracy. During these transactions Struensee and Brandt were detained in the most rigorous imprisonment. They loaded the former with very heavy chains about his arms and legs, and he was at the same time fixed to the wall by an iron bar. The room is not above 10 or 12 feet square, with a little bed in it, and a miserable iron stove; yet here, in this abode of misery, did he, though chained, compleatly, with a pencil, give an account of his life, and conduct as minister, which is penned with uncommon genius!

"A tribunal was appointed for the trial of the queen and two counts, and a counsel assigned for each, to preserve an appearance of justice and equity."

The result of this was, the counts were sentenced to lose their heads, and the queen to banishment. The two counts were executed April 28, 1772; and their skulls and bones exposed on wheels, about a mile and a half out of the metropolis. Hence the precariousness of favouritism may be seen; and that those who rise rapidly, generally fall with equivalent velocity.

He that in court secure will keep himself,
Must not be great, for there he's envy'd at.
The shrub is safe when as the cedar shakes;
For where the king doth love above compare,
Of others they as much more envy'd are.

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Yet

Yet with what avidity are fleeting riches, imaginary pomp, temporal titles, and precarious power, sought after, while solid happiness is neglected! How universal is the wish to acquire wealth, dominion, and worldly honours! and yet when disappointments, the natural concomitants of these objects, attend the pursuit, mankind blame not themselves, but lay the fault on fate, whereas their own wishes alone are erroneous.

But why, alas! do mortal men in vain,
Of fortune, fate, or Providence complain?
God gives us what he knows our wants require,
And better things than those which we desire.

Some pray for riches, riches they obtain,
But, watch'd by robbers, for their wealth are slain.
Some pray from prison to be freed, and come,
When guilty of their vows, to fall at home;
Murder'd by those they trusted with their life,
A favour'd servant, or a bosom wife.
Such dear-bought blessings happen ev'ry day,
Because we know not for what things to pray.
Like drunken sots about the streets we roam;
Well knows the sot he has a certain home;
Yet knows not how to find th' uncertain place,
But blunders on, and staggers ev'ry pace.
Thus all seek happiness, but few can find,
For far the greater part of men are blind."

C H A P. V.

S W E D E N.

SECTION I.

Extent, Boundaries, Climate, various Productions, Lakes, Soil, Beasts, Birds, Fish, Minerals, and Mines. Account of a Descent into one, and the Manner of manufacturing the Iron.

THIS kingdom extends from 55 deg. 20 min. to 69 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and from 12 to 32 deg. east longitude, being near 800 miles in length, and 500 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Lapland; on the south by the Baltic, the Sound, and the Categate; on the east by Russia; and on the west by the stupendous mountains of Norway. The inhabited or cultivated parts of Sweden are very small, when compared with the vast space comprised by extensive lakes, gulphs, steril mountains, immense rocks, and barren heaths.

With respect to the climate of this country, it may be justly said, that cold and heat prevail in the extreme. The sun, at the highest, is above the horizon of Stockholm 18 hours and a half, and for some weeks makes a continual day. In winter the days are proportionably short, the sun being up five hours and an half; which defect is so well supplied, as to lights, by the moon, the whiteness of the snow, and the clearness of the sky, that travelling by night is as usual as by day; and journies are begun in the evening as frequently as in the morning. The want of the sun's heat is repaired by stoves within doors, and warm furs abroad; instead of which, the meaner people use sheepskins, and other such defences, and are generally better provided with cloathing, befitting their condition, and the climate they live in, than the common people in most other parts of Europe; though, where any neglect or failure happens, it usually proves fatal, and occasions the loss of noses, or other members, and sometimes of life, unless the usual remedy to expel the frost, when it has seized any part, be carefully applied, which is to remain in the cold, and rub the part affected with snow, till the blood returns to it again.

The seasons of the year, though regular in themselves, do not altogether answer those of other climates, as a French ambassador observed, who, in raillery, said, there were in Sweden only nine months winter, and all the rest was summer: for as winter commonly begins very soon, so summer immediately succeeds it, and leaves little or no space to be called spring. The productions, therefore, of the earth ought to be, as they really are, more speedy in their growth than in more southern countries: the reason of which seems to be, that the oil and sulphur in the earth (as appears by the trees and minerals it produces) being bound up all

the winter, are then on a sudden actuated by the heat of the sun, which almost continually shines, and thereby makes amends for its short stay, and brings to maturity the fruits proper to the climate. In the summer season the fields are clothed with a variety of flowers, and the whole country overspread with strawberries, raspberries, currants, &c. which grow upon every rock. In their gardens melons are brought to good perfection in dry years; but apricots, peaches, and other wall-fruits, are almost as scarce as oranges. They have cherries of several sorts, and some tolerably good, which cannot be said of their apples, pears, and plumbs; for these are neither common, nor well-tasted. But all kinds of roots are in plenty, and contribute much to the nourishment of the poor people.

Their woods and vast forests overspread much of the country, and are for the most part of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak; especially in the province of Bleking in South Gothland; the trees growing in most places so close together, and lying to rot, where they fall, that the woods are scarcely passable. These afford a plentiful and cheap firing; and being generally very straight and tall, are easily convertible into timber fit for all uses; so that the Dutch export, from hence, boards and masts for their shipping, which prove as good as those of Norway. In the parts near the mines the woods are much destroyed; but the want is so well supplied from distant places, by the convenience of rivers and water-carriages, that they have charcoal above six times as cheap as in England; though it is deemed not half so good.

The principal lakes in Sweden are the Vetter, Wemmer, and Maeler.

Lake Vetter is in Ostrogothia, or East Gothland, and is remarkable for its foretelling of storms, by a continual thundering noise, the day before, in that quarter from whence they arise; as also for the sudden breaking of the ice upon it, which sometimes surprizes travellers, and in half an hour becomes navigable. It is extremely deep, being in some places above 300 fathoms, tho' no part of the Baltic sea exceeds 50. It supplies the river Motala, which runs through Norkoping, where it has a fall of above 30 feet; and in some winters is so choked up with ice, that for many hours no water passes.

The second is in Westrogothia, or West Gothland from which issues the river Elve, falling down a rock near 60 feet, and passes Gottenburg.

The third empties itself at Stockholm, and furnishes one side of the town with fresh water, as the sea does the other with salt. These, and abundance of other lakes, whereof many, like ponds, have no vent, all

well stored with variety of fish; as salmon, pike, perch, tench, trout, eels, and many other sorts, unknown elsewhere; of which the most plentiful is the streamling, a fish less than a pilchard, taken in great quantities, salted in barrels, and distributed all over the country.

The gulph of Finland, which separates Sweden from that province, abounds with seals, of which a considerable quantity of train-oil is made and exported: and in the lakes of Finland are vast quantities of pike, which they salt, dry, and sell at very cheap rates. These lakes are of great use for the convenience of carriage; in summer by boats, and in winter by sledges; and among them, on the sea-coast, are almost innumerable little islands, some of which are inhabited, some uninhabited, but covered with wood, and others are merely barren rocks.

The rivers of Sweden will be mentioned when we come to enumerate the several provinces and districts.

Concerning the soil of Sweden, an ingenious traveller says, "I think it may be very justly asserted, that not one twentieth part of this country is in a state to be cultivated. I have travelled near 700 English miles in this kingdom, and, except in the province of Scania, and in some parts of Finland, did not see 20 acres of good land lying together.

The soil, however, in places capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful, though seldom above half a foot deep; and frequently the barren land, being enriched by the ashes of the trees burnt on the places where they grow, and the seed raked among the ashes, produces a plentiful crop, without further cultivation. This practice is so ancient, that their writers derive the name of Sweden from a word in their language that expresses it; but the danger of destroying the woods has, of late, occasioned some law to limit that custom. If the inhabitants were industrious above what necessity forces them to, they might, at least, have corn sufficient of their own; but as things are managed, they have not; nor can they subsist, without great importations of all sorts of grain; and notwithstanding these supplies, the poorer sort, in many places remote from traffic, are obliged to grind the bark of birch-trees to mix with their corn, and make bread, of which they have not always plenty.

As in other northern countries, the cattle are generally of a very small size; neither can the breed be bettered by bringing in larger from abroad, which soon degenerate; because in summer the grass is much less nourishing than in the places from whence they came, and in winter they are usually half starved for want of fodder of all kinds, which often falls so very short, that they are forced to unthatch their houses to keep a part of their cattle alive. Their sheep bear a very coarse wool, only fit to make cloathing for the peasants. Their horses, especially those of Finland, are hardy, vigorous, strong, sure-footed, and nimble trotters, which is of great use to the people, because of the length of their winter, and the fitness of these horses for sledges, which are their only carriages in that season. In war their horses are not only able to resist, but even to break a body of the best German cavalry.

The farmers in some parts of Sweden, when the winters are uncommonly severe, and the cattle almost starved, in order to nourish them, and cause the fodder to hold out during the season, make *bay-tea*; that is, they boil about a handful of hay in three gallons of water, and the drink thus made is so extremely nutritive, that it nourishes the cattle astonishingly, replenishes the udders of the cows with a prodigious quantity of milk, and makes one truss of fodder go as far as ten would otherwise do. If this was tried in England, upon similar occasions, it might prove a beneficial experiment.

Sweden produces elks, bears, wolves, deers, hares, foxes, wild cats, squirrels, &c. and these are hunted either for their flesh, skins, or furs; the Swedish hunt-

men using guns, and being in general excellent marksmen.

The Swedish squirrel is somewhat thicker than a weasel, but not quite so long. He is of a reddish colour on the upper part of the head and back; but on the belly is white. The tail is long and bushy, which being turned over his back, is sufficient to shade it; whence the Latin name *Sciurus*, which signifies a shade.

This animal sits upon his backside when he feeds, laying hold of the provision with his fore feet; and putting it into his mouth. He lives upon nuts and acorns of all kinds, but is most fond of hazel nuts, which he gathers in the proper season, and hoards up against winter. Squirrels are generally to be met with upon trees, where they build their nests, and bring up their young. They can leap very readily from bough to bough, and sometimes from tree to tree, at which time they use their tails instead of wings; for it is of great help in keeping them from sinking.

Poultry of various kinds are reared in Sweden. Of game there is plenty, both of land and water-fowl; particularly partridges, and a bird called a yerper; which resembles the partridge.

The orra is a fowl of the size of a hen, and the keeder is very near as big as a turkey. In winter the Swedish sportsmen amuse themselves with killing black-birds, thrushes, and fydenswans; the latter being beautiful birds, sumptuously arrayed in gorgeous plumes, which are finely tipped with scarlet: they are about the size of fieldfares, and their flesh is of a most exquisite flavour. Pigeons are scarce, on account of the great number of voracious birds which destroy them.

The eagle is the most remarkable bird of prey. This bird is of a large size, very strong, and can never be tamed like the hawk in order to pursue game; and it is much more majestic in appearance than the vulture.

The eagle principally inhabits inaccessible mountains, and roosts on the loftiest trees, being fond of such places as are least frequented by mankind. However, as birds, as well as other animals, are found in greater plenty round the habitations of men, the eagle is sometimes induced to frequent those places for the convenience of its prey. They live much on fish, crabs, tortoises, wild-ducks, poultry, pigeons, and the like. They have been known not to spare even their own species, when pressed with hunger. They attack not only lambs and young goats, but sometimes deer, sheep, and even horned cattle. They build their nests on the most inaccessible parts of rocks, and the highest trees, some of which have been found near six feet in diameter. They are usually lined with the hair of foxes, wool, or the fur of hares and rabbits, to keep the eggs warm, of which the female generally lays two, or sometimes three at a time, and hatches them in thirty days, during which time the male supplies her with food. As soon as the young ones are produced, the old become remarkably mischievous, and destroy lambs and poultry for several miles round them. They often bring hares and partridges alive to their young, to regale them with the relish of warm blood. The country folks sometimes avail themselves of these provisions, by taking it from the eaglets in the absence of the old ones, and carrying it home for their own use.

The vulture differs from the eagle in not having its beak turned immediately crooked from the root, it continuing strait to the length of two inches. It is much more lazy than the eagle, and fond of carrion, which the eagle will not touch. However, they prey upon live birds, hares, kids, fawns, &c. if they can get them; and if not, eat any filth that comes in their way.

The hawk has wings so long as to reach to the end of the tail, which resembles that of a sparrow-hawk. The beak is partly blue and partly yellow; the feet are of a pale green; the toes are slender; the talons large, sharp, and darkish; the breast, belly, and thighs, white, streaked with black; the neck, back, wings, and head are brown, and the latter is flattish at the top: the tail

is of a light brown, with black lines running across it; and the legs and feet are of a yellow colour. Some years ago a hawk was killed in Finland, which had a plate of gold on one leg, and a plate of silver on the other. On the former was this French inscription: "Ge suis au Roi;" which, in English, implies, "I belong to the king;" and, on the latter, were words these in the same language: "Le Duc de Chevreuse me garde;" which may be thus translated: "The duke of Chevreuse keeps me."

The kite is distinguishable from all other rapacious birds by having a forked tail. It is usually about 28 inches long, from the head to the tip of the tail, when the neck is strait; but when the wings are extended, it measures, from extremity to extremity, 64 inches, or better. The head is of an ash colour, the neck red, the back brown, and the wings are diversified with red, black, and white. The beak is black, the tongue thick, the legs and feet yellow, and the talons of a sable hue. It has always been famous for its rapacity, and is often mentioned by the ancients.

—Thus the speading kite,
That smells the slaughter'd victim from on high,
Flies at a distance, if the priests are nigh,
And sails around, and keeps it in her eye." }
OVID.

The seas of Sweden, as well as the rivers, abound with a great variety of fish, particularly salmon, perch, pike, streamling, trout, tench, eels, seals, &c.

Pikes are so abundant that vast quantities are salted and dried for sale; and great numbers of streamlings (which is a delicious fish, smaller than a pilchard, or pilchard) are pickled and barrelled, both for home consumption and exportation. The train oil, extracted from the seals, is a valuable article of traffic.

Sweden abounds with excellent mines. The principal of these is the great silver mine, into which workmen are let down in baskets to the first floor, which is 105 fathoms under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, supported by vast arches of oak; thence the descent is, by ladders, or baskets, to the lowest mine, above 40 fathoms. They have no records so ancient as the first discovery either of this or the great copper mine, which must needs have been the work of many ages. The ore seldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it. They are also at the charge of a water mill to drain the mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. This mine formerly produced between 20,000 and 30,000 of fine silver crowns, annually; and the king had an exemption in his favour, of being allowed to purchase whatever quantity he thought proper of it, and to pay one fourth less than the intrinsic value. A late traveller informs us, that this mine is, at present, much diminished in value, by having been so greatly exhausted. However, it may not be improper, in this place, to describe the metal called silver, and the nature of the various ores from which it is produced.

Silver is a noble and perfect metal, of a white shining colour, sonorous and ductile, but not so perfect as gold. It is sometimes found in small masses of many different shapes, but most commonly like filaments and scales in several sorts of stones and moulds, and in many sorts of land.

The Vitrean silver is of an irregular form, very weighty, and may be easily flatted with a hammer; for it is not much harder than lead, and is much of the same colour; for which reason it is often mistaken for lead. It melts presently, and soon grows red-hot. It consists of sulphur, and pure silver, and above three quarters of it is silver. The horny silver ore is half transparent, and of a deeper yellow or brown colour, according as it consists of larger or smaller lumps. It looks like rosin, and is of an irregular shape. When carefully examined, it appears to consist of very thin plates. It is not very weighty or hard, for it may be

easily ground: and when brought suddenly to the fire, it crackles, bursts, and exhales a sulphurous smell, and sometimes bursts lightly. This hard sort contains two thirds of silver. The red silver ore is sometimes of a lighter, and sometimes of a deeper scarlet colour. The first case is transparent, like a garnet, and has been mistaken for transparent cinnabar; and in the second case it is of a deeper dye. It is heavier than the former horny ore, but bursts when brought near a candle or a mild fire, and the remaining part melts before it grows red-hot; then it emits a disagreeable smell of arsenic, together with a thick smoke. It contains the same quantity of silver as the horny ore just mentioned.

The white silver ore is of a light grey colour, of an irregular figure, pretty weighty, and very brittle. It has not only copper in it, but sometimes more of it than of silver; for it differs from the white copper ore in nothing but the quantity of silver it contains. These are the principal silver ores hitherto known; though many others are looked upon by some as such, because they contain a considerable quantity of silver; but then there is always more of other metals along with them, therefore they cannot properly be called silver ores.

Silver may be easily extracted from lead, by melting it in channels, made with ashes in the furnace, and then blowing up the fire till it turns into glass, sinks into the channels, and leaves the pure silver behind.

Silver is harder than gold, but not so ductile, and is lighter than gold or lead, the weight, with regard to gold, being little less than five to nine. It will not rust, but will grow black by sulphurous vapours, and will dissolve in aqua fortis, but not in aqua regia. When it is mixed with common salt, and melted, it turns into a half transparent mass like horn, which is hard to be brought back to silver again, because it is volatile, and in a violent fire will all fly away. When silver is dissolved in aqua fortis it may be crystalized; and the crystals are very corrosive, and of an exceeding bitter taste. When applied to the skin, they leave an impression like that of a burning coal, and make an escar of a black colour. The solution of silver will turn any thing black, and therefore, when properly diluted, is often used to colour the hair. These crystals will melt in a very moderate heat before they grow red, and form a blackish mass: it is then proper for the use of surgeons, and is called the silver caustic.

The great copper mine is about 80 fathoms deep, of great extent, but subject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is sometimes recompensed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though most commonly the loss is very great. The occasion of these falls is ascribed to the throwing the earth and stones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way. The reason of this is said to be, that the profit arising, to those who are concerned, is so little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbish to a greater distance: and unless the king abates a considerable part of the profit arising to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a stand, especially if the designs of making copper, which are on foot elsewhere, take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about 200,000*l.* of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of pre-emption, but in kind; besides which, he has, upon the remainder, a custom of 25 per cent. when it is exported unwrought. Many years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with proposals to make copper a shorter and cheaper way than had till then been practised, so as to make that in five days, which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made, and his reward to be 100,000 crowns. The first essay he made succeeded to admiration; but when

when he came to work in earnest, and had got his new ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worst ore, and were otherwise so envious and untractable, that he failed of success, and lost his reward: nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practise his invention at his own charge.

This mine, travellers tell us, in the last century, supplied the greatest part of Europe with copper; but at present it is worked so very deep, that it is become extremely expensive; and though the ore is uncommonly rich, the produce is considerably diminished.

Copper is a hard, ignoble metal, softer than iron, and, when polished, of a shining reddish colour. It will melt in the fire, and is so ductile, that it may be beaten into exceeding thin leaves. It is more frequently found in its metallic form than iron, in various shapes; but its ore never distinguishes itself by any certain figure, for it is almost always irregular. But the finest colours of any kind, except the red and transparent, most commonly betray the presence of copper; for this reason there is hardly any copper ore that is not mixed with iron, in a larger quantity than the ores of other metals commonly are. However, there is not so much in some as in others; and those that contain the least iron, are naturally more easily melted than the rest. The vitrious copper ore is of a darkish violet sky colour, like that of a piece of steel that has touched a red-hot iron. It is very heavy, and of a moderate hardness; but commonly variegated with spots, and grey veins. One hundred weight of this ore contains from 50 to 80 pounds of copper. The azure copper ore is of a most beautiful blue colour, not soft, but very heavy, and, when broken, shines like blue glass. This is most free from iron, arsenic, and sulphur; and a great quantity of excellent copper may be extracted out of it with ease. The green copper ore is like green crystal, and sometimes very prettily streaked; but in other things it has the properties of the former. The light dusky-blue concretes, as well as the green, called by some copper okers, yield a great deal of very good copper when they are pure, which may be known from their colour and weight; but those that are more light, are mixed with unmetallic earth, and those that are yellow contain iron oker, on which account they are the more difficult to be met with, and yield less copper of an inferior sort.

Iron mines and forges are in great numbers, especially towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From these, besides supplying the country, there is yearly exported, iron to the value of near 300,000*l.* but of late years the number of these forges has been so much increased, that each endeavouring to undersell others, the price has been much lowered. Since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange for which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown so cheap, that it is found necessary to lessen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themselves, because they cannot work but with loss: in which case many thousands of poor people, whose livelihood depend upon those forges and mines, will be reduced to a starving condition.

Iron is an ignoble metal, remarkable for its hardness. It is of a whitish livid colour when polished, but before that it is blackish. When it is cleansed it is called steel. The ore of common iron is of no certain form, but most commonly of a rusty colour. There is also an ore which is very heavy, and of a red bluish colour when broken. It is very rich in the best kind of iron, and usually yields, at the first melting, from 60 to 80 pounds out of an hundred weight. There is also a singular kind of iron ore, of a yellowish colour, though sometimes grey, and sometimes of a kind of semi-transparent white. It will yield, when melted, about thirty pounds of iron out of an hundred weight.

No. 52.

When iron is melted, it is formed into large masses, which are long and thick, and commonly called pigs. These are melted over again, and stirred with an iron rod; in order to render them malleable. While they are yet red hot, they are placed under hammers, and by that means the heterogenous particles are forced away by the repeated strokes. One sort of iron differs greatly from another; but that which is toughest is best; and that which is most brittle is worst of all. However, all sorts of iron are of the same nature; and they are only more or less tough, in proportion to the earthy, vitriolic, and sulphurous particles mixed therewith. Iron being often melted and cleansed, is turned into steel; though, in some cases, little labour is required for that purpose, and in others a great deal. When iron is very good, they melt it in a furnace, and throw in gradually a mixture of equal parts of an alkalous salt, and filings of lead, with the raspings of oxes horns; then they stir the melted metal, and at length place it on the anvil, where they beat it into rods.

A late traveller gives the following interesting description of his descent into the mines of Danmora.

"We lay (says he) at a pretty village, called Ostarby, and went about three miles the next morning to see the mines of Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the finest iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country; and constitutes one of the most important sources of the national wealth, and royal revenues of Sweden. The ore is not dug as in the mines of tin or coal, which we have in England, but is torn up by powder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the most tremendous and awful it is possible to conceive. We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an English mile in circumference) in time to be present at it. Soon after twelve the first explosion began. I cannot compare it to any thing so aptly as subterraneous thunder, or rather volleys of artillery discharged underground. The stones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vast height above the surface of the earth; and the concussion is so great as to shake the surrounding earth, or rock, on every side. I felt a pleasure mixed with terror, as I hung over this vast and giddy hollow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As soon as the explosions were finished, I determined, however, to descend into the mine. There is no way to do this but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three persons, and fastened to chains by a rope. The inspector, at whose house I had slept the preceding night, took no little pains to dissuade me from the resolution, and assured me that not only the rope, or chains, sometimes broke, but that the snow and ice, which lodged on the sides of the mines, frequently tumbled in, and destroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant my absolute security from one or both of these accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonstrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it to accompany me. I wrapped myself, therefore, in my great coat, and stepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down. I am not ashamed to own, that when I found myself thus suspended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyss below me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half repented my curiosity. This was, however, only a momentary sensation, as before I had descended an hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with very tolerable composure. I was near nine minutes before I reached the bottom, it being 80 fathoms, or 480 feet. The view of the mine, when I set my foot to the earth, was awful and sublime in the highest degree. Whether terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling, as I looked at it, is hard to say. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns. In many places it was absolutely lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. I saw

beams of wood across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other, where the miners sat employed, in boring holes for the admission of powder, with as much unconcern as I could have felt in any ordinary, though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and dash them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. The fragments torn up by the explosion, previous to my descent, lay in vast heaps on all sides; and the whole scene was calculated to inspire a gloomy admiration in the beholder. A confinement for life, in these horrible iron dungeons, must surely, of all punishment which human invention has devised, be one of the most terrible. I remained three quarters of an hour in these gloomy and frightful caverns, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the colds of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which run a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence produced from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them; and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet, which were wet with treading on the melted ice, at their fire. There are no less than 1300 of these men constantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, of three-pence English, a day. They were first opened about 1580, under the reign of John the Third, but have been constantly worked only since the time of Christina. After having gratified my curiosity with a full view of these subterranean apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up, and can most seriously affirm, I felt so little terror while re-ascending, compared with that of being let down, that I am convinced, in five or six times more, I should have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have solved a problem in mathematics, or composed a sonnet to my mistress, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehension. So strong is the effect of custom on the human mind, and so contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarized by continual repetition!"

The same writer, in speaking of the manner in which the peasants manufacture the iron, says, "I have visited six or seven forges on my journey, each of which constantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen, only in iron. Wherever there is a country seat, you may be certain to see one of these fabrics; and no Cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have seen them stand close to, and hammer, in their coarse frocks of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and refulgence of which were almost insupportable to me at 10 feet distance, and with the sparks of which they are covered from head to foot. I had the pleasure of viewing the whole process used to reduce the ore into iron, and must own it is very curious. They first roast it in the open air for a considerable time; after which it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fusion, is poured into a mould of sand about three yards in length. These pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge heated to a prodigious degree. They break off a large piece with prickers, when red hot, and this is beat to a lesser size with hammers. It is put again into the fire, and from thence entirely finished by being laid under an immense engine resembling a hammer, which is turned by water, and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is their sole guide, and it requires an exquisite nicety and precision. It is certainly a most happy circumstance that Sweden abounds with these employments for her peasants, as, from the ungrateful soil and inclement latitude, they must otherwise perish by misery and famine."

SECTION II.

Grand Divisions, and particular Description of the distinct Parts of the Kingdom of Sweden.

THIS kingdom has been generally considered as divided into seven provinces, viz. Sweden Proper, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swedish Lapland, and the Swedish Islands in the Baltic; but it is to be observed, that two of these provinces, Livonia and Ingria, at present appertain to Russia, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded to the Russians by subsequent treaties.

The five provinces which still remain in the possession of the Swedes are thus divided:

I. Sweden Proper, which contains Uplandia, Sudermania, Westmania, Nericia, Gestricia, Helsingia, Delecarlia, Medolpadia, Angermania, Iniptia, and West Bothnia.

II. Gothland, or Gothia, which contains East Gothland, West Gothland, and South Gothland.

III. Finland, which contains Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavastia, and Cajunia.

IV. Swedish Lapland, which contains Augermanice Lapmark, Uma Lapmark, Pitha Lapmark, Lula Lapmark, Torno Lapmark, and Kima Lapmark.

V. The Swedish Islands, which are Gothland, Oesel, Dago, Aland, Hagland, and Rugen.

We shall treat of each division in their respective order, beginning with

S W E D E N P R O P E R.

SWEDEN, properly so called, is bounded on the north by Lapland, on the south by Gothland, on the east by the gulph of Bothnia, and the mountains part it on the west from Norway; extending 710 miles from south to north, and about 225 from east to west, though in many places it is much narrower. The country is fruitful, though mountainous in some parts; abounds with rich mines of copper, and affords convenience of water, and fuel for working them. It is divided, as we have already observed, into eleven parts, which are

Upland, surrounded on the north-east and east by the Baltic Sea; on the south it has part of the same sea, and part of Sudermania, from which it is separated by the lake of Maeler; on the west it is bounded by Westmania; and on the east by Gestricia, from which the river Dala parts it. It extends about 75 miles from north to south, and about 65 from east to west. Here are many mines of iron and lead, and some of silver. The country is fruitful, and produces, amongst other things, excellent wheat. The most considerable cities and towns here are as follow:

Stockholm, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the residence of the king, had its name from its situation, and the great quantity of timber used in building it; Stock signifying timber, and Holm an island. It is built upon piles in several little islands, which lie near one another. It takes up at present six of those islands, together with the southern and northern suburbs, the one in the peninsula of Toren, and the other in Athundria. It is commonly divided into four parts, which are South-Malm and North-Malm, the two suburbs, between which the city stands in an island: the fourth part is called Garceland. The isle, within which the greatest part of Stockholm is enclosed, is surrounded by two arms of a river, which run with great force out of the lake Maeler. Over each of these arms there is a wooden bridge. There are some other islands separated from the city but by small canals. From the city there is a prospect on one side over the lake, and on the other over the sea, which here forms a gulph, that, running between several rocks, seems as if it were another lake. The water is

is so little brackish before Stockholm, that it might be drank; which is owing to the great quantity of fresh water that runs into the sea from the lake.

About 300 years ago this place was only a barren island, with two or three cottages for fishers; but upon the building of a castle there, to stop the inroads of the Russians, and the translation of the court thither, it grew, by degrees, to surpass the other more ancient cities, and is now supposed to be as populous as Bristol. The castle, which is covered with copper, is a place of no strength or beauty, but of great use; for it is a spacious building, where the court resides; and also furnishes apartments for most of the great officers, the national court of justice, the colleges of war, chancery, treasury, reduction, liquidation, commerce, and execution. Here is also an armoury, chapel, library, the public records, &c. It contains very few of the inferior officers and servants of the court; they, together with the foot-guards, being quartered upon the burghers, at their landlord's charge for lodging, fire, and candle.

In this city are nine large churches, built with brick, and covered with copper; and three or four wooden chapels.

The palace of the nobility, which is the place of their assembly at the convention of the states, and the depository of their privileges, titles, and such other records as concern their body, is a very stately pile, and one of the finest in the kingdom. It is but one large pavilion, adorned on the outside with marble figures and columns, and within with pictures and sculptures; especially in two large halls, where the nobility meet. Next to this palace is that of the lord high chancellor; and a little farther are two other palaces belonging to noblemen. These four palaces stand on the banks of the lake, are built after the same manner of architecture, and are all covered with copper. The bank, built at the city's charge, is also a noble edifice, and, together with several magnificent houses of the nobility, all covered with copper, affords a handsome prospect.

Most of the burghers houses are built with brick, except in the suburbs, where they are of timber, and thereby subject to the danger of fire, which commonly, when it gets a head, destroys all before it in the quarter where it happens. To repair this misfortune, they sometimes send the dimensions of the house they intend to build, into Finland, where the walls, and several separations, are built of pieces of timber laid one upon another, and joined at the corners; and afterwards marked, taken down, and sent by water to Stockholm, there to be set up and finished; and, when they are kept in good repair, they will last 30 or 40 years; and are warmer, cleaner, and more healthful, than those of either brick or stone. To prevent the danger of fire, the city is divided into 12 wards; and in each of these there is a master, and four assistants; who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair to it: as also all porters and labourers, who mostly range themselves under the master of their respective ward. There is, besides, a fire-watch by night, who walk about only for that purpose; and in each church steeple is kept a watchman, who tolls a bell upon the first appearance of fire.

The government of this city is in the hands of the great stadtholder, who is also a privy counsellor. He sits once a week in the town-house, and presides in the college of execution, assisted by an under stadtholder, and a bailiff of the castle. Next to him are the four burgomasters; one for justice, another for trade, the third for the polity of the city, and the fourth has the inspection over all public and private buildings, and determines such cases as arise on that account. With them the counsellors of the city always sit, and give their votes, the majority of which decides. Their number is uncertain, but usually about 20, mostly merchants and shop-keepers, or such as have served the king in some inferior employment. Besides

their salary, they have an immunity from such impositions as are laid on the inhabitants to support the government of the city; which pays all its officers and servants, maintains a guard of 300 men, and defrays the charge of all public buildings and repairs. To support this expence, besides a duty belonging to the city of goods imported and exported (which is about 4 per cent. of the customs paid to the king, and amounts to about 5000*l.* per ann.) the magistrates impose a yearly tax on the burghers, in which they are assisted by a common-council of 48, which chuses its own members, and meet every spring, to proportion the payments for the ensuing year. On the traders they usually impose 40, 50, or 60 pounds sterling; upon others of a meaner condition, as shoemakers, taylor, &c. five or six pounds; and on no housekeeper less than 15 shillings; besides quartering the guards, inferior officers, and servants of the court, with other lesser charges; which, all together, would be thought a great burden, even in richer countries: neither is it otherwise esteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can scarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as well in customs, as in the trade of the place, which must needs pass through their hands: for the natives of other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners are obliged to deal only with the burghers, (except those of the gentry, who make iron,) have not the privilege to sell it immediately to strangers.

This city is, in a manner, the staple of Sweden; to which most of the goods of their own growth, as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, masts, deals, &c. are brought to be exported. The greatest part of the commodities imported from abroad come to this port, where there is a haven capable to receive 1000 sail of ships, and a bridge or key near an English mile long, to which the greatest vessels may lie with their broadsides. The only inconvenience is, that it is 10 miles from the sea, the river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the Baltic, but is of dangerous access, by reason of the rocks. Within it is one of the most commodious harbours in Europe; for ships of the largest size lie close to the key, where they are so secure from the wind, that they need neither anchors or cables to hold them. Its entrance is defended by two forts.

Upsal stands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala, which fall into the lake of Ekolen, and is 42 miles distant from Stockholm towards the north-west. It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the north, and the seat of the king. It is divided into two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and so hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept there upon the ice in that month. The town is large, but without any considerable fortifications. Here is to be seen the finest church in the whole kingdom, namely, the cathedral. It is covered with copper, and adorned with several tombs, especially those of the kings. In the chapel, behind the altar, stands the mounment of king Gustavus in marble, between the statues of his two wives, who lie also buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigismund III. king of Poland: it is of white marble. Above the city, on a steep hill, there is a beautiful castle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble prospect over the city, which it commands, and over the whole country.

Upsal was, as first, a bishop's see, but afterwards rendered an archbishopric by pope Alexander III. at the request of king Charles, successor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the first archbishop of this see; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refused to admit the Lutheran confession, and removed to Rome, was the 56th. Since his time there have been only Protestant archbishops, who do not live with the same pomp and magnificence as the Roman Catholic prelates used to do, for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of 4 or 500 people on horseback.

The university of Upsal consists of a chancellor, who is always a great minister of state; a vice-chancellor, always the archbishop; and a rector, chosen out of the professors, of which there are about 20, that have each 120*l.* a year salary. The ordinary number of students is about 7 or 800, 50 of which are maintained by the king, and some few others were formerly by persons of quality: the rest, that cannot subsist of themselves, spend the vacation in gathering the charities of the diocese they belong to, which is commonly given them in corn, butter, dried fish, or flesh, &c. upon which they subsist at the university the rest of the year. They do not live collegiately, but in private houses; wear no gowns, nor observe any other discipline than their own necessity or disposition leads them to.

The city of Upsal boasts the residence of the celebrated Linnæus, who was the head of the university, and whose fame in natural history is as great as that of Charles XII. for his victories. This great man, who was of a social communicative disposition, always received strangers with the greatest politeness, and was happy in solving any questions in the line of his botanical profession, which they might propound. To him we are indebted for an account of the Swedish turnip, a root of inestimable value in this country. He says the farmers had it originally from Lapland. It spread by degrees through the northern parts of the kingdom, and was found of more use than all other winter plants put together. The great property of it is resisting the sharpest and most continual frosts known in the country. Besides this, cattle are remarkably fond of them, and will thrive on them better than on any other winter plant. One of the greatest advantages of the culture of this root, is its being as good a preparation for corn, as a fallow of mere ploughing, which is an object of infinite importance.

Engköping is a place of considerable trade, on the lake Mæler, about 25 miles from Stockholm to the westward, and 24 from Upsal to the south.

The next subdivision of Sweden Proper is Sudermania, which is separated from Upland, on the north, by the lake Mæler; bounded on the south, by East Gothland; on the west, by Nericia; and by the Baltic on the east. It is a populous country, extending 60 miles in length, and 45 in breadth; fruitful in corn, wines, and timber, of which last many ships are built in this province. It is divided into Sudermania Proper, and the island of Foren, formed by the lake Mæler and Rekarne.

Nicoping, the capital of this province, stands on the shore of the Baltic, 48 miles to the southward of Stockholm. It is a place of some trade, with a commodious harbour, and a castle, in which the dukes of Sudermania used to reside.

Strengthnäs is a small town on the south side of the lake Mæler, the see of a bishop, suffragan to the metropolitan of Upsal. Some Gothic inscriptions in the Runic characters evince the antiquity of the place. Charles IX. lies buried in the cathedral, which is an ancient gothic edifice. Opposite to the town an annual fair is held upon the ice.

Trosa, or Tresen, is situated on the Baltic, about 40 miles from Stockholm, and has a very good harbour.

Telga, which is 20 miles distant from Stockholm towards the south west, and Torisilia, which is 18 miles to the west of Strengthnäs, contain nothing now worthy of observation; though Telga was formerly a place of some consequence, and is thus mentioned by Monsieur Huet, the celebrated bishop of Arranches, in his poetical account of his journey to Stockholm.

Once sam'd, by subterranean fires
Now wasted, Telga next aspires;
Each stable here rein-deer contains,
The denizens of northern plains;
Two curling horns their lofty brow
Defend, like flags their bodies shew:
O'er ice and snow, the lake and mead,
They whirl the sledge with Eurus speed.

The province of Westmania, or Westmanland, is a very barren country, stretching about 90 miles in length, from south-east to north-west, and about 60 miles in breadth, from south to north. It had formerly some considerable silver mines, but now they are exhausted.

Arosen is the capital of Westmania, and is situated on the side of the lake Mæler, between Koping and Engköping, about 35 miles from Stockholm. It is a bishop's see, and well defended by a strong castle. The hereditary convention was settled here in the year 1544, by which the succession to the crown of Sweden was settled in the family of Gustavus Vasa.

Arbogen, Koping, Nora, and Lindesjar, contains nothing worthy of notice.

The province or district of Nericia is bounded on the north by Westmania; on the east by Sudermania; on the south by East Gothland; on the west by part of West Gothland, and the northern extremity of the lake Veter, or Vetter. It contains several lakes and rivers, of which the river Trosa separates the country into two parts, from west to east. Silver mines were formerly worked in this province; but at present it produces only iron, sulphur, and allum. The chief places here are Arebro, Hillsmerberg, Åkersund, and Gianshamme. But none of these are in any respect remarkable.

The province or district of Gestricia is situated between Delecarlia, or Dalekarlia, the Bothnian Gulph, and the rivers Tynea and Dala. It contains three towns, Cavalia, Borna, and Coperberget. The two latter are inconsiderable; but the former being at the mouth of the river Hafunda, which forms a gulph that serves as a good harbour, carries on a considerable trade.

The province of Helsingi is very extensive, being bounded on the north by Jemptia and Medolpadia; on the west and south-west by Delecarlia; on the south by Gestricia; and on the east by the Bothnian Gulph. The country is mountainous and woody, and the inhabitants employ themselves principally in fishing and hunting.

Hudswickswald is the capital of this province, and is situated near the Bothnian Gulph: it carries on a considerable traffic in rosin, pitch, corn, timber, &c.

Sorderhamn has a good haven, formed by the mouth of the river Luispa.

The other towns, Hien Swegh, Korbole, Lufdal, and Alta, are of little importance.

The province of Delecarlia, or Dalekarlia, is bounded on the west and north by the mountains of Norway; on the east by Helsingia and Gestricia; and on the west by Westermania and Westmanland. It is 165 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. Its subdivision is into what are called Three Vallies; yet, though it is so extensive, it contains only a few very inconsiderable villages. The mountains abound with iron and copper, and some of the mines are incredibly deep. It hath been an observation often made, that the greatest number of the revolutions of Sweden have begun or originated in this province, on which account the inhabitants have been characterized as more courageous, bold, and ferocious, than any of the Swedes, as well as possessed of a more liberal spirit of independency. The principal villages are Idra, situated on the river Elfinain, one of the sources of the Dala, which runs into the Silian lake; Lima, 36 miles more to the southward, and Hedernora, about 40 miles from Upsal, and situated on the river Dala, near the confines of Westermania.

The province of Medolpadia hath the Bothnian Gulph on the east, Angermania on the north, Jempterland on the north-west, and Helsingia on the south-west. It is woody, mountainous, and watered by three small rivers. The sea-coast here is about 40 miles long, and full of rocks, to the south of Sunswald, the capital of this province, situated at the mouth of the middle river, with a pretty good harbour. There are several other sea-port towns on this coast.

Angermania,

Angermania, or Angermanland, is bounded on the north by West Bothnia and Lapland; on the east by the Gulph of Bothnia; on the south by Medolpadia; and on the west by Jempterland. It is above 90 miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The river Angerman-Flodt runs through it; but it is a mountainous country, full of rocks and forests; so that there are very few villages, and but one town of any note, which is Hernosand, on the Bothnic Gulph, where it has a pretty good harbour, which affords it some trade. It lies about 70 miles from Hudwickswald to the north.

Iniptia, Jemptia, or Jempterland, has Lapland on the north; Angermania on the east; Medolpadia, Helsingia, and Dalecarlia on the south; and the high mountains of Norway on the west. It is watered by two pretty considerable rivers. Here are no cities, only a few inconsiderable villages and hamlets.

West Bothnia, thus called, to distinguish it from Cajunia, which lies on the other side of the gulph, and is sometimes called East Bothnia, lies along the northern part of the gulph, thence called the Bothnic Gulph, which bounds it on the east. It has Angermania on the south, and is surrounded by Swedish Lapland on the west and north. That part of this province which lies along the coast, is pretty well peopled, and has many villages, but few towns of any note. The country is well watered by several rivers, which arise from the lakes in Lapland. The chief towns here are Uma, Lula, and Torno. The latter has a good harbour, and is a place of some trade.

G O T H L A N D.

The second grand division of Sweden, called Gothland, comprizes East-Gothland, West-Gothland, and South-Gothland.

East-Gothland includes the country properly so called, Smaland, and the island of Ocland.

East-Gothland Proper is bounded on the north by Sudermania; on the east by the Baltic; on the west by the lake Vetter, or Veter; and on the south by Smaland. It is a fertile, open, flat country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, venison, fish, &c.

The chief town, called Norkoping, (which term implies the Northern Market,) is populous, large, and hath considerable commerce. The bishop of Avranches, in mentioning it, says,

At Norkoping, where copper-plates
Are forg'd, the fleeds our driver baits:
Large coins are here impress'd, and threads
Form'd of vast length from copper shreds:
To distant lands these precious wares,
In loaded ships, the merchant bears.

The place is likewise celebrated for a salmon fishery, which affords a maintenance to many people.

Suderkoping, a town of some trade, stands on a branch of the sea, about 16 miles from the Baltic; is unfortified, but has been remarkable for some curious crystal stones which have been found in the neighbourhood.

Ten miles to the eastward of Sudercoping stands Stegeburg. It is a small town, but has a tolerable harbour, and some commerce.

Wastena, or Vadstan, situated on the eastern bank of the lake Vetter, 25 miles distance from Norkoping, is only remarkable for the ruins of an ancient royal palace.

The bishop of Avranches, in speaking of East-Gothland in general terms, says,

Now wild East-Gothland's bounds we gain,
Where beasts-skins clothe each livid swain:
Frost-bit their faces, coarse their fare;
Caps of warm frieze the women wear.
Well jolted with the rugged way,
Each night in cottages we lay,

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Which upright trunks of trees compose;
Grass on the turfy covering grows;
Where sheep, as on a level mead,
Undaunted, unmolested, feed.
The roof has peep-holes—So, 'tis said,
Thy temple, Terminus, is made.

Smaland is situated between East-Gothland, the Baltic, Bleking, and Halland. It is 170 miles in length, and about 75 in breadth. It abounds in wood, cattle, copper, lead, iron, &c.

Calmar, the capital of this district, is a very considerable city. It is situated 160 miles to the southward of Stockholm, and built upon a strait of the Baltic, called Calmar Sund, which is situated opposite to the isle of Ocland. It is divided into the Old and New Town. Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were settled on the head of queen Margaret. This is called in history, the union of Calmar. Erick, Margaret's successor, founded 13 prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the division of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard to the Danes, who were in possession of Schonen. It was often taken, re-taken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547; nothing escaping the fire but the church, and about threescore houses. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a musquet-shot's distance from the Old Town, in a little island called Owarnholm. This new city is large, the streets are broad and strait, and the houses well built; but the town is not populous. The new fortifications consist only of thick walls, built with large pebble stones taken out of the sea, and a few ramparts built only with sand, and therefore supported by another wall, which the sea surrounds almost on all sides, except the gate. The situation of this city renders it very strong, all the avenues to it being full of marshes, or cut off by water from the sea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, so many abysses, that it is impossible to approach the place, either in boats, on horseback, or on foot. On the sea-side there is a long mole, built with stone, along which boats and ships ride secure. This mole is defended by a fortress called Grimskar, built at about 50 paces from it, on a rock surrounded by the sea, and where a garrison is constantly kept. Behind the Old Town stands the castle, which is of very difficult access, having on one side the sea, which is full of rocks; and on the other good ramparts, large bastions, and ditches full of water. This city is, at present, the residence of a superintendant for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public consistory of the kingdom. This is a town of good trade, and the passage from Sweden into Germany.

Wexio, a bishop's see, where some of the first planters of Christianity lie buried, stands on the banks of the lake Salem, and is 45 miles distant from Calmar, towards the north-west.

Westerwick, Ekeshio, and Jonkioping, are places of some trade, and worthy of note on that account only. A late ingenious traveller has favoured us with the following curious account of his journey from Helsingburg (the first town in the Swedish dominions, on the side of Denmark) to Jonkioping. It runs thus: "I crossed the celebrated passage of the Sound, though it blew very fresh. We were over in a little more than half an hour. At Helsingburg, where I entered the Swedish dominions, I had the pleasure of viewing the beautiful landscape reversed, which I had seen the preceding evening, from the island of Zealand. Which of the two is actually the most charming, I leave connoisseurs to determine. I drove 20 miles in the afternoon, and was then obliged, by the approach

of night, and the want of horses, to stop at a miserable little inn, or rather cabin, where I could procure nothing besides milk. I lay down five hours in my cloaths, and then got into the carriage at three o'clock in the morning. Had I understood properly the manner of travelling in this country, which is to send a peasant forward from every post-house, to procure horses in readiness, I should have doubtless made a considerable progress on my way; but as I neglected this necessary step, I was obliged to wait at every stage an hour or two, while the horses were brought from the neighbouring villages.

"I was forced to spend this night in a more desolate and dirty hovel than the first, where I wrapped myself in my great coat, and slept upon a table. In the morning, when I continued my journey, the whole aspect of nature was changed. The snow lay upon the ground two feet deep; and the winter seemed to have renewed its empire over these inhospitable plains, from whence the smiling month of May cannot banish him. In hope of reaching Jonkioping at night, I set out, however, in defiance of the inclemency of the weather, which, from having been very warm, was become, in a few hours, as cold and piercing as our Decembers. The drivers seemed totally unaffected by this sudden alteration, which did not produce any change in their dress or cloathing; and the peasants, both men and women, were all barefooted as before. The snow, however, conspiring with the want of horses, prevented me from reaching Jonkioping, and I staid all night at a house, which, for horror of situation, I never remember paralleled. It is quite detached from any village or hamlet, and the spot on which it stands is a bare rock, destitute of any covering or earth, and surrounded on every side by the deepest woods it is possible to conceive, and in which I had not seen one human creature for two leagues before my arrival. Yet, in this situation, fatigue made me sleep very sound, and my servant by me, till three in the morning, when, with the return of day, I entered my carriage, and left this most melancholy and wretched habitation. Had I been in Spain or Portugal, I own my fears would have kept me awake, and I should have recollected every dismal recital of murders and assassinations, which nurses or novels had informed me of; but here those accidents rarely or never happen, and one may travel in perfect safety.

"I got to Jonkioping the next morning about ten o'clock, and gladly enjoyed a few hours of relaxation after so many unpleasant occurrences. It is difficult to give a picture of the country through which I passed from Helsingburg, the colours of which you will not imagine are heightened by fancy or invention. The first twenty miles exhibited some few marks of cultivation and agriculture; and though there was not one collection of huts or houses, which could be denominated a village, yet scattered cottages, and a little ploughed land, amidst an immense waste, informed the passenger that it was not totally unoccupied or unpeopled. But as I advanced farther into the province of Scania, and afterwards into that of Smaland, even these faint traces of human residence vanished. Groves of fir or aspen covered the country; and, in the course of 60 miles, I can affirm, I saw not 100 people, and not 10 hamlets. Villages there are not any. I have drove from one stage to another, of 12 or 14 English miles, without meeting or seeing a single person, though I cast my eyes impatiently round on every side, in hopes to discern the countenance of man.

"In many places the firs, on either side the road, form avenues as noble as those which are often planted at the entrance to palaces, or noblemens seats; and through the whole was spread a kind of rude and gloomy magnificence, which, superadded to their silence and loneliness, very strongly affected the mind. Even the birds seem to have abandoned these dreary forests. I heard or saw none, except woodpeckers, and now and then a cuckoo. I enquired if they did not afford

refuge to wolves or bears, as these animals are commonly found in those countries and places which want population; but the peasants assured me, the former were only in small numbers, and rarely seen: and as to bears, there are not any.

"The peasants are civil and humble to obsequiousness, grateful for the third part of a halfpenny, and infinitely less uncivilized and barbarous than one would be tempted to suppose from the appearance of every thing around them. Had I not taken the precaution to carry wine and provisions with me, I must have been almost starved in my journey through these miserable provinces, where the peasants are strangers to every kind of aliment, except bread, and salt pork or fish. It is, indeed, a question whether the former of these deserves the name of bread, as it is a compound of rye and oats; among which they mingle, in times of dearth and famine, a kind of flour made of the internal bark of trees rasped: it is of a colour approaching to black, and of a taste which you must be as hungry as I was to relish.

"My servant, who is a German, and has wandered over half Europe in various services, was quite tired with four days of such miserable accommodation, and exclaimed in a rapture, at the sight of this place, that it was *le paradis terrestre*. It is, indeed, of itself, a very neat country town, and most delightfully situated on the lake Vetter. I looked down from the top of the church on it; and the surrounding meadows, which were all cultivated after the deserts I had passed, were peculiarly grateful to the eye. The lake itself, which is near 200 English miles in length, extends, far beyond the view, to the north, and rather resembles the sea, than a piece of inland water."

The isle of Orland will be described in those islands which are contiguous to, and form a part of, the kingdom of Sweden.

West-Gothland is a large province, having Smaland on the south-east, Halland on the south-west, the river Gothelba on the north-west, by which it is parted from the government of Bahus, and the province of Dalia: on the north it has the lake Wenner, and part of Vermeland; and on the east it has part of Nericia, and the lake Vetter, which divides it from East-Gothland Proper. It is watered by many lakes and rivers, and abounds with excellent pastures, where great quantities of cattle are bred, and the country is enriched by the sale of them.

The most considerable towns are the following:

Gottenburg, or Gothburg, which stands on the Schager-Rach, or Categate, on the southern branch of the river Gothelba, which there falls into the sea, and forms the harbour of this city, is 170 miles distant from Calmar towards the west, and 225 from Stockholm to the south-west. It is not an ancient town, being built in the year 1607, under the reign of king Charles IX. His successors have granted it great privileges, by which it is become a considerable mart. The Dutch drive a large trade here. In the war of 1644, the Danes exerted their utmost efforts to ruin this city, but to no purpose; and it has been so well fortified since, that it is now one of the strongest maritime towns in the kingdom.

Gottenburg, from its situation, much exceeds any other sea-port in Sweden for trade; yet the commerce carried on here is not so much as at Stockholm. Formerly Norkoping exceeded it; but the establishment of the Swedish East India company here has been of very great advantage to it, by bringing much other trade; so that now it is the second port in Sweden. They have here large magazines and warehouses, with an exceeding good dock for building, repairing, and careening their ships. There are also at Gottenburg several tolerable churches; and, among other buildings, the arsenal and town-house are pretty considerable. The commerce of this place is very thriving; and the number of ships belonging to it, have, for these twenty years past, been much upon the increase. Indeed, trade

trade seems to be getting much more amongst these northern nations than formerly.

The uniting of the Isle of Man, however, to the crown of Great Britain, where the merchants of Gottenburg, as well as those of Copenhagen, had considerable magazines of East India goods, was a terrible loss to the Swedish and Danish companies."

Skara, Skaren, or Skar, a bishop's see, about 12 miles distant from the lake Wenner to the south, and 84 from Gottenburg to the north-west, was the seat of the ancient kings of Sweden, and had a palace, one of the stateliest not only in the north, but in all Europe, as may still be judged by its situation, walls, and structure. It is now a defenceless town, though formerly the metropolis of West-Gothland. Near the lake Wenner, and the ancient palace just mentioned, stands the mountain called Kindakulle, which is very high, and produces all kinds of herbs and plants, except vines. Every thing grows there naturally; and this mountain, which may be deemed one of the most fruitful in the north, is also one of the most delightful, through the warbling of an infinite number of birds that meet here.

Linkoping, or Lidkoping, which implies the mart of Lida, stands on the lake Wenner, at the mouth of the river Lida, which there falls into the lake. It is 15 miles distant from Skara. Concerning this place the bishop of Avranches says,

Wide branching pines, as on we pass,
A welcome shade around us cast:
The night o'ertook us at a town
Nam'd Linkoping, to fame well known,
Where first their breath the Magni drew,
Johannes and Olaus too.

The Magni above alluded to were the two celebrated brothers, viz. Johannes Magnus, archbishop of Upsal, the author of the Swedish history, and Olaus his brother, who succeeded him in the archbishopric, and wrote a treatise on the manners, customs, and wars of the northern nations.

There are in this province two other cities, Tal-coping, and Mariestadt, but neither is considerable.

Vermeland, or Wermeland, has Dalecarlia on the north, Westermania and Nericia on the east, the lake Wenner on the south, and Norway, with part of Dalia, on the west. Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about 97 miles; and from north to south, about 144. It has many lakes and marshes, is but indifferently cultivated, and thinly peopled. Here are some mines of iron, and one of copper.

The chief towns are Carlostad, or Carlstad, built by Charles IX. king of Sweden, Phillipstad, and Ruscoy.

Dalia, which the Swedes spell Daal, one of the smallest provinces in the kingdom, is, in extent, from north to south, about 84 miles; and from east to west, not above 24. It is full of mountains, lakes, and rivers, which fall into the lake Wenner, and has pretty good pastures for cattle, which are of a larger size than ordinary; but otherwise the country is barren. Dale-burg is the chief place in this province.

South Gothland has East and West-Gothland on the north, and is surrounded every where else by the sea. It is divided into three provinces, Halland, Schonen, and Bleking.

Halland has the sea of Denmark, or Categate, on the south-west, Schonen on the south, and part of East-Gothland, and West-Gothland, on the north-east and north. Its extent, along the sea-coast, is about 75 miles; but its greatest breadth is not above 22 miles. This is a pleasant and fruitful country, which belonged formerly to Denmark, but was, in 1645, engaged to the Swedes, as a security for a free passage of the Sound; and was afterwards yielded to them forever by the treaty of Roschild.

The chief towns here are the following: Halmstad, the capital of this province, has a good harbour, and

is a place of trade. It was fortified by Christian IV. king of Denmark, but yielded to Sweden by the treaty of Bromsbro in 1645.

Laholm has a citadel, and good harbour.

Falkenberg is a sea-port, defended by a castle.

Warberg is a small town with a strong castle, and a large harbour.

Schonen is a peninsula, separated from Zealand by the Sound, which washes its coast on the west. It is bounded on the north, partly by Halland, and partly by Smaland: on the east it has part of Bleking, and the Baltic sea, which waters it also on the south. It is about 80 miles from north to south, and about 60 from east to west. As it is the most southern, it is also the most fruitful province, abounding with corn, cattle, fowl, and all conveniences of life. It has also mines of silver, lead, and iron. This province belonged formerly to the Danes, but was yielded to the Swedes in 1660. The Danes again seized the greatest part of it in 1676 and 1677, but were obliged to restore it to the Swedes by the treaty concluded at Fontainebleau in France, September 16, 1679. This province is subject to be the theatre of war, whenever any breaks out between Sweden and Denmark, because of the proximity of these two kingdoms.

Notwithstanding the fruitfulness of this province, the bishop of Avranches speaks of it in the following words:

Spite of the wind's tempestuous roar,
We cross'd the Sound to Schonen's shore;
Our host there cook'd a strange repast,
Delicious to a Gothland taste.
He kindly urg'd us first to eat,
Sprinkled with saffron, salted meat:
Then on board at once appear
Raw mutton-steaks, dry'd currants, beer,
Sweet-scented herbs, rice pounded, wine,
Cloves, and quick pepper, sifted fine.
The table laid full many a pound
Of ginger, butter, sugar, crown'd;
With mustard, honey, fennel, oil,
And coriander. All the toil
And skill of Hecate could ne'er,
In Stygian shades, such cates prepare;
Nor worse the drugs, if fame be true,
Which unrelenting step-dames brew.
Each dish untouch'd, we haste away,
Resolv'd to travel night and day.
Thro' fir-tree forests, large and brown,
We pass, to Gothlanders well known.
Our thirst with proffer'd mead we slak'd;
They then brought biscuits, which, well bak'd,
With salt and cin'mon they prepare,
And harden in the smoke and air:
Your knife can no impression make;
Then, in its stead, a hammer take.

Luden, the capital of this province, was formerly the see of an archbishop; but in 1658, when the Swedes took the city, that dignity was removed to Copenhagen; and it is now only an episcopal see. It was adorned with an university erected by Charles IX. in 1668, which has produced eminent men; and particularly the celebrated Samuel Puffendorff: but this university has been suppressed.

Luden was formerly a very considerable city, in which were 22 churches, whereof the cathedral of St. Lawrence is a magnificent structure, having a very high spire, which is a land-mark for sailors; and a clock of the most ingenious contrivance, said to be the work of Casper Bartholinus. It not only shews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the festivals, but the movements are so artificially contrived, that at the hour two horsemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving so many blows as the hammer is to strike upon the bell: then a door opens, discovering the Virgin Mary sitting on a throne, with our Saviour in her arms,

arms, and the wise men paying their homage to him, while two trumpeters sound a note of triumph. In the neighbourhood of this city is the hill on which the kings of Sweden were formerly elected.

Malmoe, Landskroon, and Elfinburg, are places now greatly on the decline.

The province or district of Bleking is situated between Smaland, Schonen, and the Baltic, and stretches above 80 miles in length, from east to west; and is about 50 from north to south, at the broadest part. The coasts are rocky, and the interior parts mountainous, woody, and barren. The principal towns are these:

Christianstadt, which has been several times taken and retaken in the course of the wars with Denmark.

Christianople, which was once the capital of this province, and had formerly a good harbour, which Charles XI. took a great deal of pains to ruin and render useless.

Ahuys, which is situated on the Baltic, at the mouth of the river Hellea, has a safe, capacious, and much-frequented harbour. And Carlskroon, which has an excellent harbour, and is well fortified.

F I N L A N D.

THIS grand division of Sweden is about 386 miles in length, from north to south, and 215 from east to west. It is bounded by the Bothnian Gulph, part of Russia, and part of Lapland. It abounds in grain, cattle, fish, &c. of which exports are made to other parts of the kingdom. It likewise furnishes other provinces with butter, cheese, &c. The inhabitants, in general, are Lutherans; and they speak a very peculiar dialect, so as to be scarcely intelligible to the Swedes of other provinces.

The Finlanders had kings of their own till about the middle of the 13th century, when they were subdued by Erick, king of Sweden. However, part of the province of Savolaxia, all that of Kenholm, a portion of Carlia, and the fortress of Nyflot, were, by the treaty of Abo, in 1743, ceded for ever to Russia.

Finland is divided into seven provinces, Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavastia, and Cajunia.

The towns in general, of Finland Proper, are inconsiderable. At Abo, the capital, is an university, which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Christina; and the town is the see of a bishop. The houses are almost all of wood; and the episcopal palace is composed of no better materials, except that it is painted red. The town, however, derives some trade from its harbour, in the neighbourhood of which is a rock surrounded by the water. It is singular that, when any ship passes this rock, the needle no longer points towards the north; from whence a vulgar conjecture hath arisen, that the rock contains a load-stone mine.

The province of Nylandia contains the following towns:

Helsingfors, the capital of this province, is a small town, situated on a gulph of the same name, at the mouth of the river Winda. It has a pretty good harbour, and an immense fortress, lately built, which is garrisoned by 8000 men.

Burgo, Raseburg, and Ekenes, we pass over as unworthy of notice.

The province of Carelia is very fruitful, and extends, from east to west, about 150 miles. The principal town is Wyburg, a bishop's see, which has considerable trade, is well fortified, commanded by a castle, and greatly benefited by having a good harbour.

The province of Kenholm is extensive, but unfertile, as it contains many large lakes and barren mountains. It contains but one place of any note, viz. Kenholm, from which the province has its name. It is a small city, defended by a very strong citadel, and was formerly, with the whole province, subject to the

Russians, till about the beginning of the last century, when the Czar promised Charles IX. king of Sweden, to surrender the town and province to him, if he would assist him against the Poles, by whom he was then closely beset; but, being freed from the danger, he refused to perform his promise; which caused the Swedes to invade his dominions, and oblige him to yield up by treaty, in the year 1616, not only this town and country, but also the most considerable places in Ingria. But the Russians have retaken all of them.

Savolaxia, an inland province, is a barren and desert country, covered with forests, and abounding with lakes, which afford its few inhabitants plenty of fish. There is not a place in the whole province that merits description.

Tavastia, or Tavastland, is a marshy country, neither much cultivated, or populous. There are, however, iron mines, which afford a pretty considerable profit.

Tavastus, the capital of the province, is strong by its situation in a marshy ground, which renders it of very difficult access.

Martin Zeiller asserts, that Birger Jari, a Swedish general, fortified this city in 1250, in order to keep the inhabitants in awe, whom he had obliged to embrace the Christian religion.

There are several other towns in this province, but they are all small, and of no importance.

The province of Cajunia abounds with rivers, which empty themselves into the Gulph of Bothnia. The northern and eastern parts are covered with mountains, but the rest of the country is fruitful.

Cajaneburg, the chief place of this province, from which it borrows its name, is defended by a good citadel.

The other towns are Ula, Ulaburg, Carelby, Jacobstadt, Lochto, Wafa, and Christianstadt. Of these the only remark worthy of notice is, that Wafa is the native place of the celebrated Gustavus Vasa, whose glorious reign is perpetuated in the annals of history.

S W E D I S H L A P L A N D.

HAVING already given a minute description of Lapland in general, both with respect to the country and inhabitants, we have only to specify those parts of it which, being under the dominion of Sweden, are particularized by the appellation of Swedish Lapland. These are Augermanice-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Torno-Lapmark, and Kima-Lapmark. As the towns of these provinces in general, contain not one article of real information or entertainment, we omit the insertion of their respective names, as tedious and uninteresting to the reader, conveying only mere sounds.

The following islands, immediately appertaining to the crown of Sweden, are, therefore, here introduced in their proper order, viz.

G O T H L A N D.

GOTHLAND, or Gothia Insula, is situated in the Baltic sea, over-against the coast of East Gothland, in Sweden, from which it is about two miles distant to the east. It lies between 57 and 58 deg. of north lat. and between 18 deg. 30 min. and 20 deg. of east long. Its greatest length, from the south-west to the north-east, is about 56 miles; but its breadth is not above 18 miles, from east to west. Olaus Magnus says, it was called Gothland, that is to say, Good Land, because it is fruitful, abounding with all the necessaries of life; and so well provided with the blessings of nature, that it may be ranked among the best islands in the north. It is, says he, in another place, a good land, in several respects: the inhabitants are a good sort of people; there are good harbours all round the coast; the soil is good: it abounds in pastures, cattle, wild-fowl, fish, good

good water, woods, and beautiful marble. This island belonged formerly to the Prussian knights, who resigned it to the Danes in 1408, for 9000 crowns. The Swedes got it in 1645; but it was retaken by the Danes in 1677, and restored to the Swedes by the treaty of Fontainebleau in 1679. There is here but one considerable city, which is

Wisby, or Wisburg, the chief place of this island, on the western coast of it. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the sea-shore, surrounded with a strong wall, and defended by a pretty strong castle, erected near the harbour, where the governor of the island usually resides. Olearius relates, that the ruins of 14 churches, and of several houses, gates, and walls, of free-stone and marble, which he saw there in 1635, made him judge that this was formerly a considerable city: but it is now very much decayed. It began to be important towards the end of the 8th century; since which time it became so populous, that it contained 10,000 inhabitants, most of them merchants, without reckoning the Danes, Swedes, Vandals, Saxons, Russians, Jews, Greeks, Prussians, Polanders, and Livonians, who traded there. These foreigners were so numerous, that they could make head against the inhabitants; and, in the year 1288, there arose a quarrel amongst them, and a battle was fought, in which great numbers were killed on both sides. However, the inhabitants gained the victory; and Magnus, king of Sweden, reconciled them with the foreigners.

The inhabitants of Wisby are said to be the first who made hydrographical tables and sea-charts. They also pretend to the glory of being the first that made laws for regulating trade and navigation. But Monsieur La Martiniere, a French writer, observes, that they have rather admitted, than invented them. He says, that, being grown rich by navigation, they introduced among themselves the famous laws of Oleron, an island in France, in order to decide by them the disputes that might arise amongst merchants. They translated those laws into their own language, and made some additions to them; by which means, they were not only looked upon as the authors of them, but acquired also the reputation of being the most famous traders in Europe. In 1597 the Hans Towns sent deputies to Lubeck, in order to draw up laws concerning navigation, which laws are still observed throughout the whole Baltic; but they are, properly speaking, the very laws of Wisby, with some additions and improvements: and what shews that these laws are more modern than those of Oleron, is, that those of Lubeck are fuller than those of Wisby, as the latter are more compleat than those of Oleron.

O C L A N D

IS a narrow slip of land over-against the continent of South-Gothland, from which it is separated by a strait, which is not above nine or ten miles broad, and is called Calmarfundt, or the Strait of Calmar. This island, the name of which signifies the Land of Hay, is about 70 miles long, from south to north; but its greatest breadth is not above 12 miles. The soil affords good pasture, and many herds of oxen, horses, and fallow-deer, feed upon it.

The western coast is not very populous, containing only two villages, named Alebeck and Smedeby, with the city of Borkolm, the capital of this island. It lies under 56 deg. 57 min. north latitude, and 18 degrees, 10 min. east longitude. It is about 15 miles distant from Calmar towards the north-east, and is defended by a castle. The eastern coast, on the contrary, is very well peopled, and contains, going from north to south, the towns of Boda, Keninggard, Hogaby, Kilda, Stapeling, Genstala, Remasten, Mogleby, Stenala, with the villages of Hulderstad and Ottenby. There are many forts and castles to defend this island, that have been often attacked. In 1530 it was taken by the Danes, soon after which the Swedes recovered

it; but, being lost again, Gustavus Adolphus finally retook it in 1613, since which time it has been constantly possessed by the crown of Sweden.

D A G O

IS of a triangular form, the sides being from 20 to 25 miles in length. On the western cape there is a high tower, which was built by the senate of Revel, as a light-house and landmark. The northern and north-east parts are mountainous; and between here and the continent of Estonia, are some sand-banks, small islands, rocks, &c.

H A G L A N D.

HAGLAND, in the gulph of Finland, is about nine miles in length. The whole is but a cluster of rocks, interspersed or covered with fir trees, brambles, &c. and haunted by a few hares, that grow white in the winter.

A L A N D.

ALAND is situated in the Baltic, between 40 and 50 miles from the south-west part of Finland. The circumference is near 180 miles; and the inhabitants near 6000 in number. These live in small hamlets, as there is no regular town in the island; for, indeed, the peasants have almost remonstrated against the founding any, which the Swedish government have been desirous of effecting. The unhappy king Erick XIV. was confined in a castle in this island, which goes under the name of Castleholm. An ingenious traveller mentions the following curious particulars concerning it: "I arrived (says he) in half an hour, at the castle, and alighted under the walls. It stands in a beautiful situation, on the banks of a river, and commands an extensive view on every side. It was not till after a quarter of an hour's search, that the peasant, who drove the carriage, and who had known the castle 40 years, could discover the passage which led to the chamber where the king had been imprisoned; and it was with still greater difficulty I could enter it when found. I crawled upon my hands and knees under an arch, the stones of which, having fallen down in a course of years, had almost filled up the way; and after passing this narrow entrance, I had two ladders to mount, which did not appear capable of bearing too much pressure. I followed, however, where my guide led the way, and entered the apartment through a trap-door. I must own that I was struck with compassion and horror, to think that a sovereign had been the tenant of such a dungeon, which is too miserable for the worst malefactor. It is composed of stone, and vaulted over head. I measured it by my paces: it was about 23 feet long, and 12 broad. The light is admitted by a narrow window through a wall five feet in thickness. In one corner is a little fire place, and in the other a cupboard, hollowed in the wall. The flooring is of brick; and, as the peasant pretended to shew me, is worn away in those places where the king was used to walk."

This island abounds in cattle, and some wild beasts, and is plentifully supplied with fish. It is surrounded by many sand-banks, rocks, and small islands; some of the latter being inhabited, and others uninhabited. Of these little islands the most remarkable are Ekero, (which is six miles long, and separated from Aland only by a river of three miles over,) Elys, Landsveden, Rodan Nyan, and Lappo.

R U G E N.

RUGEN, which is situated in the Baltic, opposite to Stralsund, is 23 miles in length, and 15 in breadth, with the title of a principality. It abounds with corn and cattle; contains a town called Bergen, is strong by nature, and well fortified by art.

The same ingenious traveller, whom we have before quoted, in speaking of his departure from Finland, and concerning the adjacent islands, says, "It was my intention to have gone on to Finland by the post route, through several small islands or rocks, from one to another, for which there are constantly boats provided to convey travellers. Just as I was on the point of carrying this design into execution, four or five of the country people came and proposed to convey me from thence strait to Abo. I did not hesitate long, but complied with the offer, and left Aland about midnight on Saturday. I slept, as I had done the preceding night, in my conveyance, and, at seven in the morning, found myself in a narrow passage, surrounded by high rocks, and the people employed in rowing. I made no question but we were already in the river of Abo; but was not a little chagrined to find, on enquiry, that the wind had fallen away, that we were hardly 30 miles from the place we had quitted, and that I must not flatter myself with landing in Finland that day. They added, that the whole way was through such channels as I was then in; that several islands, by which I failed, were inhabited; and that, if I pleased, they would land me on one of them, where I might procure some refreshment. To this I gladly consented; and about nine o'clock I went on shore, on one called Lappo. I walked to a little hamlet at a mile distance from the shore. The poor peasants very cheerfully brought me some cream, and assisted in boiling my coffee. Nothing could exceed their poverty; a little black bread, fish, pork, and a sort of mixture they called beer, constituting all their sustenance. After having made a very comfortable breakfast on this unknown and sequestered island, I returned again to the boat. During the whole day we pursued our voyage through a labyrinth of small rocks and isles; many of them covered with firs and aspens; some few green and beautiful, but far the greater number barren and rugged. I could have fancied myself among the Cyclades, so famous in ancient story; but here were no temples sacred to Apollo or Juno, nor had genius and poetry conspired to render every cliff and promontory immortal. Many of the prospects were, however, wonderfully picturesque and romantic; and I frequently stopped the boatmen for a minute, to gaze upon the extraordinary scenes around me. Sometimes we went through channels of only 20 or 30 feet in breadth. Sometimes the water opened into a considerable expanse, and often there appeared to be no avenue on any side. I was astonished how they so exactly knew their track in this intricate and perplexing maze, through which nothing besides long experience could have conducted them.

SECTION. III.

Description of the Persons, Dress, Dispositions, Manner of Living, different Ranks, Employments, Diversions, Marriages, Funerals, Language, Religion Learning, &c. of the Inhabitants of Sweden.

THE natives of this country are, in general, of good stature and robust constitution, capable of enduring hardships. Their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of just proportion, have good features; and those who are employed at home are mostly fair; but the peasants compel their families to undergo an equal share in all laborious employments.

The cloathing of the Swedes is suitable to the climate. The dress of the rich, in winter, is lined with furs; that of the poor with sheep skins, with the wool on. In fashion the Swedes resemble the Germans, and other European nations. They wear, in summer, such stuffs as their circumstances enable them to procure; the great adorning themselves with lace and embroidery. The common people are, in general, dull of apprehension, and little troubled with the spirit

of enquiry. However, it must be observed, to the credit of the country, that, by industry, experience, and travelling, some of those of superior rank, arrive at such a mature and solid judgment as to make a considerable figure in life, and to merit the title of great and able men. The nation has produced many excellent statesmen, and some learned men; among the latter of whom stand the celebrated Puffendorf, historian, civilian, and philosopher; and, of our time, the famous botanist Linnæus, one of the best naturalists in Europe.

The inhabitants of Sweden compose the four following classes: the nobility and gentry; the clergy; the citizens and merchants; and the soldiers, seamen, and peasants.

The nobility and gentry chiefly apply themselves to a military life. They are naturally courageous and hospitable, fond of glory, and scrupulously observant of the functions of honour; but, at the same time, too generally proud, ostentatious, jealous, and vindictive. Those who are employed in the administration of civil affairs, though they are laborious and indefatigable, seldom raise their speculations above what the necessity of their employments require; their abilities proceeding not so much from study, as experience in the track of business. They preserve a graceful deportment, and make the best appearance they possibly can, in order to gain the respect of those beneath them. They never descend to any employments in the church, the practice of law or physic, or the exercise of any trade: nor will they ever accept the command of a merchant's ship; though, to gain experience in maritime affairs, they will submit to the lowest offices in foreign countries.

The young nobility of Sweden go very much into the French military service, both by sea and land; and, through a principle of policy in that nation, they receive rank before all others; because, by the laws of Sweden, when they return into their own country, they receive the same rank in their own military service that they held abroad, whereby they are not only advanced much faster than they could possibly be, had they not been abroad, but become firm friends to the French interest, when any particular relative to it comes to be debated before the diet.

The clergy of Sweden, who are very numerous, affect great gravity, are esteemed hospitable, and preserve a distinguished authority over the lower order of people.

The citizens and merchants plod on in a beaten track, without ingenuity to discover, or spirit to pursue, new branches of commerce, notwithstanding all the care and encouragement bestowed by the legislature.

The common soldiers endure cold, hunger, long marches, and hard labour, to admiration; but they learn their duty very slowly, and are serviceable more by their obedience to command, and standing their ground, than by any great forwardness to attack the enemy, or activity in executing their orders.

The seamen are very bold and active, and well instructed in their business. They have just sentiments of morality and honesty, and pay such attention to religious duties, that the captains of merchant ships have always prayers twice a day, whether their ships are in harbour, or at sea.

The peasants, when sober, are obsequious and respectful; but, when intoxicated with strong liquors, furious and ungovernable. They live in great poverty, and rudely practise several mechanical arts, which necessity teaches them to exercise, such as making their own shoes, clothes, tools, and instruments of husbandry. They are very obliging, courteous, and remarkably hospitable to strangers.

An English traveller, who lately made a tour through Sweden, as a proof of this disposition, remarks, that nothing can exceed the generous hospitality he found every where. He says, it would even be resented, if

strange

stranger visited a forge without paying his compliments to the owner, who expects that mark of his attention and respect. This custom plainly shews how few persons travel in these parts of Europe: if they were numerous, it would, in all probability, be quickly laid aside, or at least restrained within narrow limits.

With respect to their manner of living, the richer sort have a profusion of dishes at their entertainments, but no taste in the arrangement, or disposition of them. The table groans beneath a number of covers, which are all brought in at once, and then left to cool during a ceremonious meal of at least two hours. But the prologue to this scene is even worse. Before they sit down to dinner, the company take bread and butter, which they wash down with a glass of brandy; and this fashion prevails not only among persons of condition, but extends even to the ladies as well as the men.

The way of dividing the residence of winter and summer, as practised in England, takes place here only in part. Many of the nobility and richest of the gentry, live entirely at Stockholm, scarcely ever seeing their estates. Others live entirely in the country, never seeing the capital, at least but very seldom. Some, however, have houses at Stockholm for the winter season, but live in summer on their estates, having very good houses, which they ornament with gardens and plantations.

As the nobility and gentry of Sweden are chiefly engaged in military employments, it is therefore little to be wondered at that they should be fond of martial entertainments, which are here frequently appointed by the king for their amusement, his majesty himself generally attending in person. Of one of these entertainments we present the following particular account, given by a gentleman, in a letter to his friend in England.

"A spectacle of a singular kind detained me at Stockholm. The scene lay in a large park, about an English mile without the gate of the city, where the camp has been pitched some weeks, and which is finely adapted for a martial entertainment, from the nature of the ground, which is irregular and full of declivities. The rising parts of it are covered with small woods of fir, and it is divided by a branch of the Maeler lake, over which is a floating bridge.

"The king of Sweden commanded about two regiments, mostly infantry. His younger brother, prince Frederick, had under him near 1000 troops, horse and foot. They were entirely ignorant of each others motions, his majesty only endeavouring to surround the inferior army, and the prince exerting his endeavours to effect a secure retreat. The queen-dowager, with her daughter the princess of Sweden, were present in a little open chaise, which permitted them to follow the soldiers over the field, and be present every where. The king, dressed in his uniform, was mounted on a cream-coloured horse, and appeared as much animated and interested in this essay of arms, as he could have been on a day of action. It was about five in the evening. I cannot pretend to pursue the two generals through the different manœuvres of their conduct, which passed in too rapid a succession, and were of too intricate and uncertain a nature, to admit of a minute description. The result, however, was favourable to the king. His brother, having neglected to seize on a post which might have commanded a retreat in case of emergency, found his error too late; and when he would have availed himself of this passage, discovered that his rival's troops were already in possession of it, having crossed the river in boats for that purpose. After having in vain endeavoured to force them from this post, he formed his infantry into a hollow square, and maintained a brisk fire on all sides for a considerable time; but finding himself environed by a much superior body of forces, and no possibility of escaping, he delivered up his sword to the king, and his soldiers remained prisoners of war. His cavalry had, however, seized on a

small, but most advantageous spot, and, unterrified by the fate of their companions, refused to surrender, and demanded permission to march off the ground with all military honours. Their fate was not yet decided when I quitted the place at eleven o'clock at night. It was a very elegant and gallant diversion, finely designed to cultivate and practise the operations of a campaign, and keep alive the knowledge of war even amidst the most profound peace."

There is a theatre at Stockholm, on which, during a part of the year, is represented French comedies, and sometimes concerts and oratorios; but the times of acting are very irregular; not meeting always with encouragement enough to keep it open even in the winter; so that it has been known to be shut up for two years together.

The marriages of the Swedes are generally governed by the will of the parents, and founded so much upon interest, that the inclination of the parties is little regarded, nor the nation much troubled with the extravagancies of lovers. Stealing of matches is hardly heard of in an age; nor can the church give license to marry, without publication of the banns.

Persons of quality of both sexes, commonly remain unmarried till thirty, or above; because their fortunes, on both sides, being in their parents hands while they live, they are not in a condition to maintain a family, till the death of relations, or advancement to office, furnishes them with the means of subsisting.

The women, in general, are more distinguished for their chastity before marriage, than for their fidelity after. They are very fruitful, and seldom fail of a numerous issue. As before hinted, they are no where greater drudges than here; the meaner sort being, besides the ordinary offices of their sex, put to plough and thresh, to row in boats, and bear burdens.

Domestic quarrels happen seldom, and more rarely become public. Divorces scarce ever happen. Cousin-germans may not marry without the king's dispensation, which is more frequently granted than refused.

The Swedes generally, in nuptial ceremonies, have affected pomp and superfluity, beyond the proportion of their abilities; for, by the excess of one day, oftentimes many of them involve themselves in such inconveniencies, that they cannot remove them for several years.

The same is observable in their funeral solemnities, which are usually accompanied with great jollity and feasting; and, to gain time to make their preparations, they commonly transport their dead to vaults within, or adjoining to their churches, where they remain unburied some months. But of late these, and other unnecessary expences, have been much laid aside.

The Swedish language is formed of the ancient Gothic, or Teutonic, and bears a near affinity to that of Denmark. This language is a dialect of the Mæso-Gothic, spoken anciently by the inhabitants of Mælian Tartary, from whence the northern parts of Europe are supposed to have been peopled. The only specimen of the language then spoken by the Scythian Goths in Mælia, is preserved in a book at Upsal, being a translation of the four gospels, by Uphilas, bishop of the Goths, seated upon the Palus Mæotis. The purest dialect of this ancient tongue is now found among the Dalecarlians, or Highlanders of Sweden, and in the island of Iceland; in which places it appears to have a surprising conformity to the English, both in language and pronunciation.

The religion of Luther was established in Sweden soon after it began to prevail in the Protestant parts of Germany. Gustavus Vasa was the prince who first introduced the tenets of that Theologist. He ascended the throne in the year 1523, and not only rendered the regal dignity hereditary in his own family, but established the reformed religion in Sweden, where it has ever since continued to flourish. This is partly owing to the laws, which prohibit all noisy sects; and partly

to the care, assiduity, and regular lives of the clergy, by which they acquire a surprising influence over the minds of their audience. An attempt was once made to re-establish the Roman Catholic religion in Sweden, and the peace of the country was not a little disturbed; but the scheme proved abortive; and now the government is so much upon its guard against any future effort of the like kind, that no popish priest can enter the kingdom without running the risque of castration.

The Swedish church is governed by one archbishop and thirteen suffragans, who confine themselves entirely to the occupation of their own function. They are, indeed, present at the assembly of the states; but are never called to council; nor do they ever intermeddle in the administration of state affairs. Their revenues are very moderate, that of the metropolitan not exceeding 400l. sterling; and those of the bishops are proportionably smaller. Under these are seven or eight superintendants, vested with the power, though not the name of bishops; and a provost, or rural dean, presides over each 10 churches, to superintend the conduct of the inferior clergy; the number of whom, including chaplains and curates, may amount to 4000; the churches in Finland and Sweden being little less than half that number.

The metropolitan see of Sweden is Upsal. The inferior dioceses are those of Linköping, Skara, Strängnäs, Westeros, Wexjö, Åbo, Lund, Borgo, Gottenburg, Calmar, Carlstad, Helsingfors, and Wisby. In the election of the archbishop, all the consistories, or chapters of the kingdom, give their votes; but the suffragans are chosen in the following manner: three persons are presented by the chapter to the king, who confers the diocese on one of them, with the advice of the senate. Simple benefices are bestowed in Sweden, as in England, by right of presentation; which is sometimes vested in the crown, and sometimes in the nobility.

The inferior clergy are generally of the lower class of people, sons of peasants or poor citizens; so that they live the more contented with their small income, which arises from certain inconsiderable dues, glebelands, and one third of the tithes. The other two thirds are vested in the crown, to be employed in pious and charitable uses. Notwithstanding their poverty, the Swedish priests are extremely hospitable, and their houses are always open for the refreshment of strangers and travellers.

The Swedish churches are, in general, handsome and spacious buildings, and well ornamented. They are kept neat and clean, in good repair, and furnished with rich altar-cloths and vestments.

The church is governed according to a body of ecclesiastical laws and canons, revised by a committee chosen from the different states that compose the diet, and approved by the king. By these canons it is, among other things, ordained:

1. That if any Swedish subject changes his religion, he shall be banished the kingdom, and lose all right of inheritance for himself and his descendants.

2. That if any person continues excommunicated above a year, he shall be imprisoned a month, during which he shall be fed with bread and water only, and then banished.

3. If any person shall introduce into Sweden teachers of another religion, he shall be fined and banished.

4. Foreign ministers shall enjoy the free exercise of their religion only for themselves and family.

5. Strangers shall not be allowed to exercise a different religion publicly; and their children shall be baptized by Lutheran ministers, and educated in their communion, otherwise they shall not enjoy the privileges of Swedish subjects.

By these laws the laity are obliged to pay a strict attendance to the duties of religion; and, indeed, the civil magistrate is empowered to punish, with imprisonment, all those who absent themselves from divine ser-

vice without a proper excuse. But the clergy are not entrusted with the execution of their own laws; nor can they transact matters of any importance without the concurrence of the civil power. Many causes, formerly cognizable in the ecclesiastical courts, are now tried in secular tribunals. The clergy are not even permitted to pronounce the sentence of excommunication without the king's permission, because, in that case, it would be considered that the state had been deprived of a subject.

Among the better sort of people, and the higher ranks, there is a considerable degree of learning. A good education in Sweden fits a man to shine in any country in Europe. In their schools they learn Greek, Latin, French, English, and German; so that there are very few instances of a young man's understanding the dead languages, and not at the same time being master of two or three very useful living ones.

They have several universities, which are provided with able professors. In these seminaries the favourite knowledge is natural history and the mathematics; and herein they shew their good sense as much as any nation in Europe; for there are no other parts of knowledge that deserve so much attention, the rest being for ornament alone; but these are useful in every branch of life. Many of their mathematicians are in general esteem, as they are very rarely without several whose works are known to all Europe. In natural history they are unrivalled; but they do not owe their fame in this branch merely to Linnæus; for, before he was born, this study was the favourite one in their universities; and they have produced many men that gained them great reputation for their works; but they have since been eclipsed by Linnæus, and his numerous disciples.

The Swedes are most deficient in the polite arts. You look amongst them in vain for a painter, a poet, a statuary, or a musician. If the Abbé du Bos's system is a just one, this is the fault alone of their climate; but without attributing it to physical causes, we may find a reason in the moral ones. The fine arts never make a great progress in any country till it becomes immensely rich, and very luxurious. The arts are the children of luxury. Without a great flow of expence running through every class of the people, we may pronounce that a nation is not rich enough for the fine arts to settle among them. The artists that excel must always be sure of something more than a competency; they must have affluence. They are generally men of warm imaginations, and lovers of pleasure. They must indulge their inclinations, and not be cramped in poverty, while they are attempting to produce works that shall be the admiration of succeeding ages. Hence all the famous ages in which the arts have risen to a great degree of eminence, from many very famous men being contemporaries, have universally been the richest and most luxurious ages in the world: not that wealth is alone sufficient without luxury.

The Swedes have no poets: some attempt that sort of composition, but it is always in Latin, and consequently of no merit. Their painters never rise higher than very bad portrait ones: the same fashion obtaining in Sweden as formerly in England, when we had nothing but portrait painters, because no others met with any encouragement. You hear very good music at Stockholm, but it is all by German musicians. This is not, therefore, a kingdom to which any person would resort to be entertained by the fine arts.

SECTION IV.

Commerce, Revenues, Armament, Military and Naval Laws, Judicature, &c. of the Kingdom of Sweden.

WITH respect to commerce in general, there is no country in which inland navigations would be attended with better consequences than in Sweden; for all their products are very bulky, and must have water-

water-carriage, or they cannot be got to market. Many of the rivers are navigable: but there are many tracks, covered with the finest woods, which yield scarcely any profit, for want of water-carriage, at the same time that considerable rivers run through them, which might, at a very small expence, be made navigable only by removing local obstructions, and not by a general deepening or widening.

Few countries are better supplied with harbours, many of which are extremely spacious and safe; and the number is so considerable, that their trade will never stand still for want of them in any part of the kingdom.

The Swedish manufactures are not considerable. They have some linen fabricks, in which are wrought very good sorts both of hemp and flax; but they are not near considerable enough to supply their home consumption. Of glass and paper they import very little. Hardware is a considerable article among them, not in the stile of our Birmingham manufactures, but principally in the foundery way. They cast great numbers of cannon, which they export to all Europe; also bells in great number, and many other articles. Indeed, they are unrivalled in their iron and copper mines, which are far more considerable than those of any other country in Europe; so that they apply copper to most of the purposes that we do lead in England, such as coverings to their churches, public buildings, great private edifices, &c.

Commerce flourishes more in Sweden than it did some years ago. To what this is owing is matter of doubt; for their products are not greater in proportion to the increase of their shipping; and though several very judicious laws have been made for its encouragement, it cannot be supposed the effect would have been answerable to what appears, unless other reasons had conspired at the same time. However, the fact is, that their shipping is much increased. Their ships they build of a greater burthen, and they engage in more trading voyages than formerly. This is a point of very great importance: for if they are able to export the principal part of their iron, timber, pitch, tar, hemp, and copper, in their own bottoms, it will add more than any thing else to the wealth of the kingdom; at the same time that their naval force will be increased greatly, which is the best and most useful force they can cherish. Increasing their shipping, is improving and accelerating the markets for all their products, and cannot but increase them in a very high degree. The building and fitting out the ships is the most advantageous manufacture in the kingdom, and that which more, than any other, brings wealth into the country. The branches of commerce, which they have more particularly increased of late years, are the East-India trade, the trade to Portugal, Spain, and the Mediterranean.

The exports of Sweden are iron, wood, tar, pipe-staves, dried-cod, copper, brass-wire, pitch, herrings, and train-oil. The imports consist of grain, various kinds of provisions, coffee, flax, manufacturing materials, sugar, hemp, &c.

It is singular, that about one half of the bar iron which is made in this country, is exported either to Great Britain or Ireland.

The trade to Portugal and Spain, for salt, fruits, and wines, is in favour of the Swedes, as they barter for those commodities their iron, fish, and copper. But the trade to France is destructive, as it takes off but few of their commodities, except iron and a little brass wire, yet runs away with a great deal of their specie, and returns them hardly any thing but luxuries. The payments in this country are usually made in copper, that being the principal, but, at the same time, a very inconvenient medium of trade, as some of the copper coins are as large as a tile, and when a person receives a sum of this money, it must be carried home in a cart, wheelbarrow, or sack. But here are some gold ducats, value 9s. 3d. each; eight-mark pieces of silver, valued at 5s. 2d. and four-mark pieces of silver,

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half the value of the latter. A dollar silver-mint, as it is termed, is worth about an English shilling; and three dollars copper-mint make one dollar silver-mint.

The established revenues of Sweden arise from a capitation tax, crown lands, excises, customs, certain tythes, silver mines, copper mines, law proceedings, and a few less considerable particulars.

A third part of the revenues are appropriated to the use of the royal family, and the rest to support the civil and military establishments. The revenues of the king of Sweden were anciently so small, that they could hardly maintain him; as they arose only from some duties on merchandizes imported or exported, either by sea or land. It was considerably increased by the discovery of the mines; but chiefly by the introduction of the reformation: for Gustavus I. having proposed to the nobility to share with him the church lands, which made up above one-third of the kingdom, seized the greatest part of them; and united, also, with the crown, the right of forfeitures, which belonged to the bishops almost throughout all Sweden: and the resumption of lands, granted away from the crown by preceding kings, to the nobility and gentry, have raised the king's revenues to a very high degree. This was done by king Charles XI. in the year 1680: and though it was much opposed by the assembly of the states, especially by the nobility, yet the lower order consenting, the nobility were forced to comply. Besides these branches, the king has a third part of all fines, when they do not exceed forty marks of silver; and, when they do, he takes it all. He has also all forfeitures upon the account of high treason; and the estates of strangers, if their heirs do not appear within a year after their death.

The Swedish forces consist chiefly of an established national militia, the regulations of which were either formed or improved by Charles XI. and thence continued to be the basis of the present establishment. The nobility and gentry were obliged to furnish the cavalry; and a nobleman, after having furnished a man, could not put either him or his horse to any other employment. The infantry are raised from among the farms, and the king's commission distributes them through the various provinces, in proportion to the number of farms, each of which, to the value of above 60l. per annum, not being occupied by the officers, or appropriated to their peculiar services, are charged with one foot soldier, who receives, from the farmer, lodging, diet, cloaths, and a trifling annual allowance of money: or otherwise a wooden house is built for him at the farmer's charge, who must also furnish him with as much hay as will keep a cow in winter, and pasturage in summer, and plough and sow for him such a parcel of ground as will afford him bread. Those that are married (as many of them are) generally accept this latter condition. The unmarried soldiers usually abide with the farmer, but are not obliged to do him any service without wages. When they have once taken the peasants money, and are listed into the king's service, they can never quit it as long as they are able to serve; and, if they desert, they are punished with death. The first institution of this method was very burdensome to the peasants, who were at great charge to hire their men, who cost them 10l. and sometimes 20l. a-piece; and the same they must do whenever their soldier dies. This, in peaceable times, is not so chargeable as in times of war, when men are unwilling to serve, and recruits more frequently wanted.

As all the common soldiers are thus provided for at the country's charge, so all officers, both of horse and foot, are maintained by the king, who has appropriated for that purpose some of the lands re-united, or formerly belonging, to the crown: so that every officer has a convenient house, and a competent portion of land to live upon, situated in that part of the country where the regiment he belongs to is quartered; as also the rent of as many other farms as make up his pay, which, though it be somewhat less than formerly, yet, being punctually paid, either in money, corn, or other

commodities, they find it more profitable than when they were to solicit for it at the treasury. A colonel of foot has, of these lands, the yearly rent of about 300*l.* and the rest proportionably, which amounts to about 2500*l.* a year for the officers, both upper and under, of one foot regiment; and there being in Sweden, Finland, and Livonia, 28 regiments of foot under this establishment, the maintenance of all the officers belonging to them costs the king about 70,000*l.* a year. What charge the cloathing of the common soldiers, once in two or three years, their arms, and such other necessaries, may amount to, cannot so easily be computed. The officers of horse are provided for after the same manner, with such large allowance as is requisite. There are 15 regiments of horse thus established, and the maintenance of their officers is computed to be about 80,000*l.* a year; all which arises from the rents of crown lands; as do also the wages of civil officers in the country, who have farms annexed to their employments, in the same manner as the militia.

The laws enacted for maintaining this constitution are very particular, and provide, with great caution, that neither the peasants shall be oppressed, nor the lands or houses ruined: to which end all such lands are yearly visited, and the possessor compelled to make such repairs as are found needful: and as every officer, upon his first coming to such an estate, subscribes an inventory of it, so, upon advancement, he cannot take possession of another charge till he has put that estate into as good a condition as he found it; and in case of his death, his heir cannot inherit it till that is done.

In times of peace, all trespasses and crimes, committed by the soldiers, fall ordinarily under the cognizance of a civil magistrate, who has the same authority over them as over the rest of the king's subjects, except when they are encamped or in garrison, or any ways under flying colours: in all which cases, as also in matters that relate solely to their profession, their officers have jurisdiction over them, without whose leave a private soldier is not permitted to lodge out of his quarters, nor be absent a day from the parish he belongs to. The inferior officers cannot be absent from their charge but by their colonel's permission; nor captains, and those above them, without the king's leave. Above the ordinary establishment, the king annexed to each regiment 20 supernumerary farms, to answer any extraordinary accident of fire, &c. and to furnish a subsistence for such officers as are past service. For common soldiers, whom age and wounds have rendered unfit for war, there is one general hospital, which has a good revenue; and besides that, every officer who is advanced, pays to it a sum of money proportionable to the degree he is raised to; a colonel paying 100 crowns, and others in proportion.

The naval force of Sweden consists of ships of the line, from the first to the sixth rate, carrying from 100 to 40 guns; of frigates, carrying from 36 to 20 guns; of brigantines, carrying from 8 to 6 guns; with several bomb-ketches, armed galleys, &c.

The seamen of Sweden, as well as those of Denmark, are of two classes, viz. one order, which is always actually ready either to man the fleet, or work in the dock-yards; and another order, which is but nominally ready, as the individuals are only registered, and must appear, upon occasion, as recruits.

In Sweden there are five great officers of the crown, who preside each in a tribunal composed of some senators; and when any of their places become vacant, the king gives it generally to the most ancient senator of the tribunal where the vacancy happens; though he may bestow it in whose favour he pleases. These officers are. 1. The drotter, or chief justice, who is the first officer in the nation, and was formerly a kind of viceroy: he has the honour of putting the crown on the king's head at the coronation; and presides in the supreme court of justice, to which there is an appeal from all other courts. 2. The constable: he pre-

sides in the council of war; has the inspection of the discipline, and all that relates to war; and enjoys many great and honourable privileges. 3. The admiral, whose power is also very great: he has the command of the fleet, and appoints all the officers who serve by sea, and gives them their commissions; and justice, in all that relates to the admiralty, is administered in his name. He has also many other privileges. 4. The chancellor: he is the chief of the police; rectifies abuses, and gives the necessary order for the good of the public. He is the keeper of the seals of the crown, dispatches all state affairs, and lays the king's orders and demands before the states general. 5. The lord high treasurer: he has the administration of the treasury, and of all the king's revenue; and audits the accounts of all the several receivers; signs all orders for payments; manages the public funds, and pays all the officers of the kingdom. He also presides in the chamber of accounts, where the imposts on the people are assessed, and where all officers belonging to the exchequer resort.

The laws of Sweden were anciently as various as the provinces were numerous, each of which had statutes and customs peculiar to itself, enacted as occasion required, by the laghman, or governor of the province, who was chosen by the people, and invested with great authority, especially when the kingdom was elective, his suffrage concluding the province he governed. This variety was necessarily attended with great confusion; for remedy whereof, near 200 years ago, a body of laws was compiled for the direction of the whole kingdom: yet this collection is but an imperfect piece; and the laws are so few, and conceived in such general terms, that in most cases they need the assistance of the civil law; and, after all, the final determination depends much upon the inclination of the bench, which, in a poor country, where salaries are small, is often filled with such men as are of weak parts, and subject to corruption upon very slight temptations. The effects of this would be more visible, if each superior court did not keep a check upon the lower, and the king's court of reversion over-awe them all, to which all civil causes, amounting to the sum of 70*l.* are appealable; and very few end before they have been brought thither. In this supreme court the king frequently sits in person, and determines causes himself. Here the president of the chancery, and two or three privy-counsellors, also sit; as does the chancellor of the court, (an officer next in degree to a privy-counsellor,) who is president of the under-revision, where he, and two secretaries, prepare the business in a proper manner to be brought before the king.

The courts of justice, inferior to this, are of three degrees. Of the lowest degree, or first instance, there is one in each corporation, (besides Stockholm, where there are three;) as also in each district or territory, whereof every province contains several, some above twenty. In the former, namely in cities, an alderman or counsellor presides, and has some of his brethren for assistants: in the latter the governor of the territory presides, with a standing jury under him; his court being ambulatory, and usually kept near or upon the place where the fact or trespass was committed. In these courts examinations are taken, and matters not exceeding forty shillings determined. The rest are transmitted to the next superior court, of which, in every corporation, there is one, where the burgomaster is president, and the aldermen assistants: and so in every province there is one or more of these courts, the president whereof retains the name of laghman, without any other authority than that of a judge. From these all causes of blood must be transmitted to the respective national courts, where they are determined without farther appeal; and thither also all civil actions, not exceeding 20*l.* may be appealed. Of these national courts there are three: one for the kingdom of Sweden, held at Stockholm; another for the king-

dom of Gothia, or Gothland, kept at Jonkioping; and a third for the dukedom of Finland, at Abo. In each of these a privy-counsellor is president, and above half the assessors must be gentlemen.

All these courts sit continually, or, at most, have but short vacations; and not being pestered with too much formality, give causes a speedy dispatch, unless retarded by some underhand engagements.

Actions relating to the sea are tried in the ordinary courts, according to the sea-laws, founded upon those ancient ones of Wisby, in the isle of Gothland, which have formerly been as famous in the Baltic sea, as the laws of Rhodes and Oleron in other places. The court of admiralty has not any peculiar jurisdiction in the administration of these laws, but only in such matters as directly concern the king's fleet, and in some places that belong immediately to the admiralty.

For ecclesiastical causes there is a consistory in each diocese, of which the respective bishop is president, where causes of bastardy, contracts of marriage, and other matters of that nature are tried, and church censures of penance, divorce, &c. inflicted. These courts have no power to administer an oath, or to inflict any corporal punishment. From them there lies an appeal to the respective national courts, and, in some cases, to the king, as in all other matters.

For matters relating to the mines, besides inferior courts and officers settled in the respective parts of the country, a general court, called the college of the mines, sits at Stockholm, of which most commonly the president of the treasury is the chief, with a vice-president, and other assessors. The laws in this respect are more particular than in other matters; and, for the most part, justice is very carefully administered.

The power of executing all judicial sentences is lodged in the governors of the provinces, the stadtholders of Stockholm, and other places; and from them derived to inferior officers, who are accountable to the national courts, whither they may be summoned, and punished, upon plain proof of default: but the proof being difficult, and ministers of justice apt to favour each other, they take great liberty to delay execution, or to arbitrate and put their own sense upon sentences; so that this part of justice is administered the worst of all others, and has an influence not only at home, but lessens the credit of the Swedish subjects abroad; against whom justice cannot be obtained without great difficulty.

The ordinary charges of law-suits are no where more moderate than in Sweden, the greatest burden arising from a late constitution, that all declarations, acts, and sentences, must be written upon sealed paper of different prices, from two-pence to seven shillings a sheet, according to the quality of the cause; the benefit of which accrues to the king, and is computed to bring about three thousand pounds a year. Other charges are very few, every man being permitted, and, in criminal actions, compelled, to plead his own cause. Accordingly the practice of the law is below a gentleman, and rather the resource than the choice of meaner persons, who are very few in number, and, for the most part, very poor.

The custom of a jury of 12 men is so ancient in Sweden, that their writers pretend it had its original among them, and was thence derived to other nations: but at present it is disused every where, except only in the lower courts in the country; and there the jurymen are for life, and have salaries. They have this peculiar to themselves, that among them there must be an unanimous consent to determine a cause, which, in their other courts, is done by a majority of voices.

Titles to estates are rendered more secure, and less subject to contests, by the registers that are kept of all sales and alienations, as well as of other engagements of them; the purchaser running the hazard of having an after-bargain take place, if he omits the recording his transaction in the proper court.

In criminal matters, where the fact is not very evi-

dent, or where the judges are very favourable, the defendant is admitted to purge himself by oath; to which are added the oaths of six or twelve other men, who are all vouchers of his innocence. Treason, murder, burning of houses, witchcraft, and the like heinous crimes, are punished with death; which is executed by hanging of men, and beheading of women; to which burning alive or dead, quartering, and hanging in chains, is sometimes added, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals of rank are usually shot to death. The punishment for stealing is several years since, instead of death, changed into a kind of perpetual slavery; the guilty party being condemned to work all his life for the king, in making fortifications or other drudgery; and has always an iron collar about his neck, with a bow coming over his head, to which is fastened a bell, that rings as he goes along.

Duels (if the one party be killed) are punished with the survivor's death, and a note of infamy upon the memory of both. If neither be killed, they are both condemned to a prison, with bread and water, for two years: to which is added a fine of a thousand crowns; or one year's imprisonment, and two thousand crowns. Reparation of honour, in case of affront, is referred to the respective national court, where recantation, and public begging of pardon, is usually inflicted.

Estates, as well acquired as inherited, descend to the children in equal portions; of which a son has two, and a daughter one: nor is it in the power of the parents to alter this proportion without the intervention of a judicial sentence, in case of their childrens disobedience; only they may bequeath a tenth of their acquired possessions to such child or other as they are disposed to favour. Where an estate descends incumbered with debts, the heir usually takes two or three months time, as the law allows, to search into the condition of the deceased's estate; and then either accepts the inheritance, or leaves it to the law, which, in that case, administers.

The distinct orders of knighthood in Sweden, are the following. The order of the North, or Polar Star, instituted by Frederick I. in 1748. The order of the Sword, instituted by Gustavus Vasa in 1525. It soon declined, and lay dormant till revived as a military order by Frederick I. in 1748. The order of the Seraphim, or of Jesus, instituted by Magnus II. in 1334, set aside at the reformation, but revived by Frederick I. also, in 1748. The order of Vasa, instituted by the reigning king in 1772.

SECTION V.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

THE first material and, indeed, duly authenticated event, respecting the history of Sweden, was the introduction of the Christian religion, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, who was sent thither for that important purpose, by the emperor Lewis the Pious, in the year 829.

From that period, for a succession of years, the history is replete with civil dissensions, or war with their neighbours of Denmark and Norway; by the latter of whom they were frequently subjected through their own domestic broils.

The first king of Sweden, who appears to have been guided by maxims of sound policy, was Magnus Ladulus, who ascended the throne in 1276. This prince formed such measures as conduced to the support of his royal dignity, and the promotion of the real interests of his people. His grand objects were the augmentation of the revenues of the crown, and the diminution of the power of the nobles; by which means he reconciled his subjects, in general, to his government, and aggrandized his kingdom.

His successors were inactive and pusillanimous; so that disorder and confusion prevailed in the state for more than a century following. In the year 1387

Margaret,

Margaret, daughter of Waldemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, held the regal government of these kingdoms, and being a princess of an aspiring and enterprising genius, found means, in 1396, of becoming at once queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, having reduced the latter under her power.

A plan was concerted, and carried into execution, by queen Margaret, for uniting the three kingdoms under one sovereign. It was called the Union of Calmar, and was efficient for a considerable series of time.

A scheme was adopted by Christian II. king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the union before-mentioned, was also king of Sweden, to render himself absolutely despotic. This barbarous design, which was no less than the massacre of all the principal nobility, was actually accomplished in the year 1520. The only person remaining in Sweden, who dared to oppose the arbitrary measures of Christian, was Gustavus Vasa, a young prince descended from the ancient kings of Sweden, but reduced so low, at this time, as to be obliged to work in the copper mines of Dalecarlia for his subsistence, and to conceal himself from that tyrannical monarch. Representing the miserable state of their country to the miners, and the neighbouring peasants, he prevailed on them to join with him in an attempt to shake off the Danish yoke; to which end having assembled a numerous body of these brave rustics, he boldly issued out of those subterraneous territories, and surprizing the several posts the Danes possessed, drove them entirely out of the kingdom; for which service the Swedes elected him their king. As the popish clergy had appeared his greatest enemies, he introduced the Lutheran doctrines, and seized the revenues of the church, most of which he appropriated to the service of the state, and was enabled thereby to ease the people of their taxes, which rendered him popular. He was crowned at Upsal in the year 1528; but his reign was frequently disturbed by conspiracies and insurrections, incited by the clergy: and when these were quelled, the Danes invaded the kingdom, endeavouring to recover the dominion of Sweden. Gustavus, however, proved successful, both against foreign and domestic enemies; and marrying the princess Katherine, daughter of Manus, duke of Sax Lawenburg, his eldest son by this marriage, Erick Augustus, was declared his successor, and the crown made hereditary by the states, anno 1544. At the same time the Catholic religion was abolished, and the Lutheran established, for the maintaining whereof, future sovereigns were always sworn. After this Gustavus reigned in peace, except that the Russians made an incursion into Finland, and were repulsed.

Though the king and states had settled the succession upon Erick, his eldest son, he gave some part of his territories, as an appendage to his younger sons, John, Magnus, and Charles, and died in the year 1559, when his eldest son was preparing to embark for England, in order to marry queen Elizabeth. Having some apprehension that the government would be disturbed in his absence by his brothers, he declined the voyage.

Erick, who was but a weak prince, and actuated by an ill grounded jealousy, treated his brothers with the most rigorous severity, insomuch that the people took up arms in behalf of those princes, made Erick a prisoner, and he died in prison, supposed to have been poisoned. He was succeeded by his brother John, who, endeavouring to restore the Roman Catholic religion, met with great opposition; but dying in the year 1592, he was succeeded by his son Sigismund, who likewise attempted to restore the Roman Catholic religion; in consequence of which, he, with his posterity, were excluded from the crown, which was conferred upon prince Charles in 1604. The reign of Charles was greatly interrupted by powerful opponents, both in Sweden and Russia; which afforded the Danes an opportunity of invading his territories in Sweden.

Their progress, however, was checked by the extraordinary efforts of the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, his son, though then a minor, who afterwards totally defeated the Danes, and restored the independence of Sweden. Charles dying the next year (1611) was succeeded by his son Gustavus Adolphus, then 18 years of age; when, by the consent of the states, he took upon him the administration of the government.

Gustavus, soon after his accession to the throne of Sweden, found himself involved in a war with the Danes and Russians; but he surmounted all its attendant difficulties with skill and resolution. This prince achieved astonishing feats of valour. He obtained several victories over the Russians. He invaded the Polish dominions in Livonia, took Riga, and made himself master of the whole province.

In 1630 he advanced into Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated Tilly, the famous Austrian general, and pursued his rout through Franconia, where he made divers conquests.

In the beginning of the year 1632 he marched into Swabia, in pursuit of count Tilly, who, in an attack from his army, was mortally wounded by a cannon ball, and soon after expired.

He then took Munich, the capital of Bavaria, and laid that duchy under contribution. In the mean time the Imperialists, having driven the Saxons out of Bohemia, and entered Saxony, the elector entreated the king to come to his assistance. He left Bavaria, therefore, and joined the Saxons. Soon after which a general battle was fought in the plains of Lutzen, near Leipzick; and the Swedes made themselves masters of the cannon of the Imperialists; but their horse being stopped by a small river, Gustavus, to encourage his men to attempt the passing it, advancing at the head of the cavalry, was soon after found dead on the other side of the river, having been shot through the back, which was generally thought to have been done by some pretended friend. But, notwithstanding the loss of their great leader, the Swedish generals behaved so well, that they obtained a complete victory: and the war continued many years afterwards, in which the Swedes were generally victorious, notwithstanding the Saxons, and some other German princes, changed sides, and adhered to the Austrians. But the assistance the Swedes received from the French, was more than an equivalent for the desertion of the German princes.

Gustavus Adolphus left only one daughter, the princess Christina, who was proclaimed queen of Sweden on the death of her father, being then but six years of age; whereupon the diet of Sweden determined, that the regency should be committed to the great officers who behaved with that conduct and fidelity, that the kingdom appeared in a flourishing condition during her minority, notwithstanding they were engaged in a war with such potent enemies; and, at length, concluded a peace upon honourable terms, anno 1648, usually called, "The treaty of Westphalia." Queen Christina, one of the greatest geniuses of the age, one of the most learned of her sex, courted by all the princes of Europe, and in the highest reputation for her equitable administration, having reigned till the year 1654, resigned the crown in favour of her nephew Charles Gustavus (that is Charles X.) who prosecuted the war against the Poles with such success, that he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia, and received from them an oath of allegiance, which they soon perfidiously broke.

He then marched with his army against the Danes, who had declared war, passed over the ice into Holstein, (the Baltic being frozen over at that time,) and compelled the Danes to enter into a treaty, and yield up to the Swedes the provinces of Schonen, Halland, and Bleking, with the island of Bornholm. This was called the peace of Roschild, at which place plenipotentiaries met, anno 1658; and the Danes have ever since been expelled from the continent of Sweden. The Imperialists, Brandenburgers, and Poles, also entered

entered into a confederacy against Sweden, and obtained a victory over the Swedes at Nieuburg; and while king Charles was levying another army to oppose them, he was taken ill of a fever, and died on the 23d of February, 1660, leaving only one son, named Charles, then about five years of age. During the minority of Charles XI. the administration of the government was committed to his mother, the queen-dowager, and five great officers of the crown, who, finding it necessary to be at peace with their neighbours, concluded a treaty, in May 1660, with the Poles, at the abbey of Oliva, near Dantzick, whereby the Poles relinquished their claim to Livonia, and left the Swedes in the entire possession of that province: and in the same month they concluded a peace with Denmark, on the same conditions they had agreed on at Roschild; only the Swedes ceded to the Danes the island of Bornholm, and the city and territory of Drontheim in Norway.

The Swedes afterwards entered into a treaty with England and Holland, against France, called the Triple Alliance; but, on the commencement of the war, anno 1674, they entered into an alliance with France, against the house of Austria, and invaded Brandenburg; but their forces were defeated by the elector, who made himself master of most of their territories in Pomerania, while the duke of Zell reduced Bremen and Verden, and the Danes recovered several towns in Schonen. The Danes, however, being afterwards defeated in several battles, were compelled to make a separate peace with Sweden, at St. Germain, which was succeeded by the treaty of Nimeguen, anno 1678, whereby all the territories the Swedes had lost in this war were restored them; and king Charles married the princess Ulrica Eleonora, sister to the king of Denmark. After these transactions, the young king, being at peace with all the neighbouring states, seems to have applied the power vested in him to the oppression of his subjects; whom he enslaved and impoverished to render himself despotic, and his army formidable; so that the government of Sweden was in every respect monarchical. His power, at length, became so very considerable, that conferences for a general peace were opened at Ryswick in 1697, under his mediation.

Charles XI. the same year paid the debt of nature, and was succeeded by his son, the celebrated Charles XII. whose achievements are well known in the annals of history. This enterprising genius was declared major by the senate, though he had not attained to the age of sixteen years, and, in November, 1697, saw the peace of Ryswick concluded under his mediation, which had been begun by his father. Soon after his accession, he had to contend with the united powers of Denmark, Poland, and Russia. The first of these had encroached on the territories of the duke of Holstein, who had espoused his sister. He, however, boldly withstood them all, laid siege to Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to conclude a peace with him at Travendal, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. In the mean time the czar Peter entered the province of Ingria, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men, whereas that of the Czar amounted to 80,000. Such, however, was the progress of the Swedish hero, that he advanced at the head of 8000, routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege.

This victorious hero then advanced with his arms into Saxony, where he achieved feats of valour almost unrivalled in the annals of history. He defeated the duke of Courland, a most accomplished general, and marched to Warsaw, which opened her gates to him, Augustus, king of Poland, and his friends, being fled towards Cracow. In a word, by the exertion of military talents, a fortitude hardly to be equalled, and a courage almost invincible, which appears from exploits, as hazardous in their nature as extraordinary in their suc-

cess, he reduced Augustus, king of Poland, to the necessity of abandoning his kingdom twice; and, at length, shutting himself up in Dresden, the capital of his German dominions, gave an opportunity to Stanislaus to resort to Warsaw again, where he was solemnly crowned on the 4th of October, 1705.

In the mean time the Czar, having sent a great reinforcement of troops into Poland, to the assistance of his friend and ally, king Augustus, and Schulemburg, the Saxon general, having raised another army in Saxony, with which he joined the Russians, a battle was fought at Fravenstad, on the 12th of February, 1706, wherein the Saxons and Russians were again defeated by the Swedes. The Russians threw down their arms and begged for mercy; but the Swedish general, Renschild, ordered them all to be put to death in cold blood, to revenge the barbarities the Czar had committed in Livonia; for the Czar, taking advantage of the king of Sweden's absence from that province, had reduced most part of it, taken the chief towns, massacred great numbers of the inhabitants, and sent the rest in chains to the remotest part of his dominions.

The king of Sweden, having driven both the Russians and Saxons out of Poland, bent his march towards the river Oder, in order to enter Saxony, which induced the diet of the empire to declare him their enemy, in case he passed the Oder. The king, however, continuing his march, and entering the frontiers of Saxony, the inhabitants immediately fled from their houses, till his Swedish majesty published a proclamation, to inform them, that all who returned to their houses, and paid the contributions he required, should be treated as his subjects; but to the rest he should give no quarter; and the people thereupon returned to their houses. The army being encamped at Alranstad, near Leipzick, Charles summoned the states of Saxony to meet him there, and bring with them an account of the revenues of the electorate, which he having perused, imposed on them a tax, or contribution, of 625,000 rix-dollars (crowns) a month; besides which, he obliged them to supply every one of his soldiers with two pounds of meat, two pounds of bread, two pots of beer, and four-pence a day, with forage for their horses. He then ordered every house, in which any of his soldiers were quartered, to send him certificates of the soldiers behaviour every month, without which the soldier was not to receive his pay. He assigned inspectors also to visit every house, and enquire if his soldiers had committed any irregularities, and punish them as they deserved: and under such exact discipline were his soldiers, that when a town was taken by storm, the troops dared not seize upon the plunder without leave: and so well satisfied were the people with their security, while the Swedish forces remained in Saxony, that the great annual fairs were held at Leipzick as usual, without interruption.

King Augustus sending to the conqueror to beg a peace on his own terms, he immediately sent him the following articles.

1. That Augustus should for ever renounce the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Stanislaus lawful king; and promise never to remount the throne, even after the death of Stanislaus.
2. That he renounce all other alliances, especially that of Russia.
3. That he release the princes Sobieski, and all his other prisoners.
4. That he deliver up all deserters, particularly John Patkul; and that all who have deserted his service, and been entertained in the Swedish service, shall not be liable to any prosecution.

During this treaty Menzikoff, general of the Russians, entered Poland at the head of 30,000 men, and joined Augustus, who had still a body of 6000 Saxons with him. They attacked the Swedish general, Maderfield, who commanded 10,000 men, near Calish, and obtained a complete victory, for which Augustus sung Te Deum at Warsaw: but, in the midst of these rejoicings, Augustus received advice that his plenipotentiaries

tentaries in Saxony had agreed to the terms above-mentioned, which he found himself obliged to ratify, or see his German dominions ruined, as well as Poland. Augustus had several conferences afterwards with Charles, and endeavoured to procure better terms; but Charles was so incensed at the defeat of his forces under Maderfield, that he made them still worse. He obliged Augustus to send Stanislaus the following letter, viz.

" SIR and BROTHER,

" AS I ought to regard the directions of the king of Sweden, I cannot avoid congratulating your majesty upon your accession to the crown; though, perhaps, the advantageous treaty the king of Sweden has lately concluded for your majesty, might have excused me from this correspondence. However, I congratulate your majesty, beseeching God that your subjects may be more faithful to you than they have been to me.

Leipsick,
April 8, 1707.

AUGUSTUS, king.

Augustus was also obliged to order his Saxon subjects not to address him as a king for the future.

The character of Charles XII. has undergone some ignominy for condemning Patkul, a gallant officer, to the sentence of the wheel. But it should be candidly considered, that Patkul had not only been guilty of desertion to the Russians, but remarkably active in exciting several princes to rebel against their sovereign.

The dethroning of Augustus, the raising of Stanislaus to the throne of Poland, and a succession of feats astonishing to all Europe, so enhanced the fame of the enterprising king of Sweden, that he was courted by ambassadors from most of the powers; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of a successful war against France.

He seems, however, in some instances, to have indulged a stubborn and implacable disposition to a very censurable degree. He faulted in his grand design of invading Russia, and lost the battle of Pultowa, where the Czar obtained a victory so decisive, as obliged him to take refuge among the Turks at Bender.

It was near two years before the Porte could be persuaded by Charles to enter into a war against the Russians, in which they met with great success; for the Czar entering into Moldavia before he had erected magazines for the service of his army, one half of them perished by famine; and the hardships the rest underwent, being surrounded by the Turks on the banks of the river Pruth, compelled the Czar to beg a peace, restore Azoph, and all the places he was possessed of on the Black Sea, and exclude himself from navigating it, before he could obtain leave to retire.

Peace being concluded between the Porte and Russia, Charles was desired to leave the Turkish dominions, which that prince refusing to do, the Turks attacked him in his quarters, in order to force him out of their territories; and he defended himself with the few people he had about him, till he was made prisoner, and carried away to a village near Adrianople, where the Grand Seignior let him know that he expected he should quit his dominions again; but if he chose to reside where he was, he would allow him and his people a subsistence during their stay. The king having remained here about another year, was conducted to the frontiers, from whence he rode through Hungary and Germany, incognito, attended only by one gentleman, and arrived at Stralsund, in Pomerania, the only town almost that held out for him in Germany. Here being soon after besieged by the Danes and Prussians, he defended the town four months; and then finding it no longer tenable, sailed over to Sweden. Such was the military ardour of this prince, that, on his return

to his own dominions, he renewed the war against the Danes; hoping to have made himself some amends for Bremen and Verden, which the Dane had wrested from him during his absence in Turkey; but, to the great joy of his adversaries, who still dreaded his power, he was killed before Frederickshall, a Danish city on the frontiers of Norway, on the 11th day of December, 1718, in the 36th year of his age.

The character of the celebrated Charles XII. king of Sweden, has been variously represented by writers, accordingly as mankind are actuated by their different principles and prejudices. The great traits of his character are strongly depicted by a French author of the first eminence, in the following terms.

" No dangers, however sudden or imminent, occasioned in him the least dismay. He seems, in short, to have been a man divested of the smallest particle of fear; and the manner in which he endured cold and hunger, shews him to be a prodigy of strength as well as courage. His rapid successes against the combined forces of Denmark, Poland, and Russia, prove him to have been no ordinary man; but, although they astonished all Europe, yet, in their consequences, they were fatal to the kingdom which he governed. A strong resentment against the unprovoked attacks made upon him, led him to meditate enterprizes against his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature, and the cool and undismayed perseverance of his great adversary, the czar Peter, at length prevailed over his ill directed ardour."

Upon the demise of Charles XII. his sister, Ulrica Leonora, consort of the prince of Hesse, ascended the throne by the free election of the states, having previously resigned all pretensions to arbitrary power. In 1720 the government was transferred to her husband, prince Frederick.

In order to set bounds to the royal prerogative, which had been too far extended, a capitulation was drawn up by an appointed committee, and signed by Frederick and the queen, before they entered upon the exercise of government. By the articles of this capitulation the royal power was greatly reduced; for the king of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every branch of government. The diet of the states might be said to rule; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, because the king's prerogative was more bounded.

The war still continued with Russia; and the Czar would probably have made a conquest of their country, if the Swedes had not prevailed on the English to send a fleet into the Baltic. What the English received for this important service does not appear. However, their fleet could not prevent the Russian galleys from plundering the coasts of Sweden, which lie on the Bothnic Gulph, and destroying several of their copper and iron-works; this gulph not being deep enough for large ships to enter. The alliance between Great Britain and Sweden, at length prevented the Russians making any farther conquests in that kingdom: and, by the treaty of peace between Sweden and Denmark, his Danish majesty promised not to assist the Russians in that war: for both these kingdoms began now to be apprehensive of the growing power of the Czar, and perceived that it was their mutual interest not to contribute to render him still greater. The Danes also agreed to restore to Sweden all their territories they had possessed themselves of in the late war (except Bremen and Verden) in consideration of a sum of money; but the ships of Sweden were, by this treaty, obliged to pay toll to the Danes on passing the Sound, as well as the ships of other nations.

By a treaty of peace concluded with Russia, at Newstadt, anno 1721, the Swedes ceded to Russia the provinces of Lijonia, Ingria, part of Carelia, and the districts of Wiburg and Kenholm, in Finland; as also the islands of Dago, Oesel, and all the islands in the gulph of Finland.

In the year 1728 an ambassador arrived in Sweden from Turkey, to settle an account of the money that had been advanced to the late king Charles, which being honourably discharged, the Porte and Sweden entered into an alliance, which gave great umbrage to the courts of Petersburg and Vienna.

About the year 1738, through the machinations of the French, the people of Sweden were divided into two great political parties, distinguished by the names of Hats and Caps. The former espoused the interest of the court, the latter the country, or patriotic party. These parties not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia.

The queen of Sweden dying without issue, anno 1741, the diet took into their consideration the nominating a successor, for which honour there appeared four candidates. The first was the young duke of Holstein-Gottorp, supported by many of the nobility, and by a strong party among the burghers, as well as by the whole order of peasants; the second prince Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king, for whom all the clergy declared; the third the prince of Denmark, who had a very considerable party; and the fourth, the duke of Deuxponts, who was also of the royal family of Sweden, and had but a small party. After very warm debates, the duke of Holstein was declared successor, in the month of October, 1742, by a majority of two votes only; and deputies were named, to offer him, on certain conditions, the reversion of the crown, in hopes he might induce the Czarina to restore the grand duchy of Finland. But before they arrived at Petersburg, he had embraced the Greek religion, with a view to the succession of Russia, to which also he had a claim of hereditary right. This scheme having failed of producing its desired effect, was followed by consequences that were equally unavoidable and unexpected: for the peasants, that had expressed such unanimous affection for the house of Holstein, began with the same zeal and unanimity to espouse the interest of the prince of Denmark, to whom the clergy were attached. They likewise insisted on calling to a severe account, the generals that had commanded the forces in the two last campaigns; and those very persons that had shewn the greatest warmth in promoting the war with Russia, were equally warm in demanding the punishment of all such as were the managers of that war, to whom they imputed its want of success. Yet, in the midst of these domestic disputes, a peace appeared as precarious as ever; and the diet seemed equally unable to bear the thoughts of losing Finland entirely, or falling upon any expedient for recovering it, except receiving it as an equivalent from the hands of the Czarina. His Britannic majesty having offered his mediation, the conferences were continued at Abo. These, at last, ended in a treaty, by which Russia consented to restore all that had been taken in this war from Sweden, except a small district in Finland; and to renew the peace between the two nations, in case the states of Sweden should elect prince Adolphus Frederick, administrator of Holstein, and bishop of Lubeck, successor to the crown; and, in this case, the young duke of Holstein, whom they had already elected, and who was now become hereditary prince of Russia, offered to make a solemn resignation of all his claim and right to the Swedish diadem.

When this treaty came to be considered in the diet of Stockholm, there arose very high debates; but at last the consideration of those immediate advantages, which were to arise from the election of the bishop of Lubeck, and the prospect of continual disputes, in case they elected any other successor, brought over all the orders of the states to this proposition; and duke Adolphus was accordingly chosen hereditary prince and successor of Sweden, on the 23d of June, 1743.

But while the diet was thus providing for their present peace and future safety, the Dalecarlians took up arms, and marched directly to the city of Stockholm,

under pretence of supporting the interest of the prince of Denmark, in which they persisted, notwithstanding the king took all possible methods to reduce them by fair means to their duty. At last the malecontents attempted to overturn all to which the king and the states of Sweden had consented. This obliged his majesty, much against his will, to employ force even in his capital city, where, after a sharp engagement, in which one of the senators, at the head of the king's troops, was mortally wounded, the rebels were totally defeated, obliged to lay down their arms, and submit to the king's mercy, which was extended to them in the most ample degree. But this extraordinary instance of royal clemency did not soften the resentment of the peasants against two unfortunate noblemen, Count Lewenhaupt, and Baron Buddenbrook, who, to satisfy them, had been condemned for want of success in the two last campaigns, and whose execution was demanded with such heat, that the king could not refuse it. Lieutenant-general Baron Buddenbrook suffered first, on the 16th of July in the same year; but field marshal Lewenhaupt made his escape, yet was soon after retaken; and, notwithstanding the nobility and clergy were inclined to spare his life, the peasants remained still inflexible; and to satisfy them, he was, according to his sentence, beheaded. The king retired to his country palace till these melancholy scenes were over; and the peasants, gratified in their revenge, consented to the election, which being signified to duke Adolphus, he went soon after to Stockholm, where he was received with universal acclamations. The late king of Denmark, having many motives to dislike this sudden and extraordinary elevation of the house of Holstein; and, besides, not a little mortified on the score of his son's being set aside to make way for the bishop of Lubeck, began to make such vast military preparations as seemed to bespeak a design of invading Sweden, which, for some months, not only amused the north, but all Europe: yet the Czarina found means to lay this storm, by declaring roundly to the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen, that she would maintain the election she had promoted with the whole force of her empire. To establish the peace of the kingdom more effectually, it was thought highly requisite that the new prince successor should marry, and accordingly he espoused the princess Louisa Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia.

Adolphus succeeded to the crown of Sweden on the death of the late king Frederick, anno 1751.

He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and harrassed by contending factions. The intrigues of the senators forced Adolphus to take part in the war against Prussia; but as that war was disagreeable, not only to the people, but also to the king of Sweden, the nation never made so mean an appearance; and, upon Russia's making a peace with Prussia, the Swedes conciliated matters as well as they could. After a reign of tumult, commotion, and trouble, this monarch died of chagrin, in the year 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus, who was born in 1746, and married to the princess royal of Denmark in 1766. In the commencement of the reign of Gustavus a very remarkable revolution happened in Sweden, of which a late learned and ingenious traveller gives the following elegant account.

"Adolphus, the late sovereign, was a weak man, and under him the democratical authority attained its utmost height. The royal revenue was very inadequate to his dignity, and his weight in the scale of government inconsiderable and despised.

"In this situation Gustavus III. succeeded to the crown. He possessed the same advantage over his two immediate predecessors, which his present majesty, George III. of England, did over his, on his accession; that is, he was born in the country over which he reigned, and spoke the language perfectly. The Swedes, who, since the year 1720, had seen only foreigners on the throne, were charmed to have, once more,

more, a king from among themselves, insomuch, that several silver medals were struck to commemorate this happy æra; on the reverse of which is this inscription, *Fadern's land et;* It is my native land.

"If one may credit the accounts given of the late procedures of government, while vested in the senate, it was high time to redress the injuries they did the state, which suffered greater evils from the irresolutions, the delays, and the divisions of a large assembly, than it could even undergo from an absolute monarch. Time had matured these seeds of dissatisfaction, and a young prince, beloved by his subjects, was ready to take advantage of them.

"On the 19th of August, 1772, this extraordinary event was produced, which again restored to the crown those prerogatives which she had lost for more than half a century. The king's secrecy, address, and oratory, in so dangerous and critical a juncture, far surpassed what might have been expected from his age. It is said only five persons in the kingdom were entrusted with the design, which was carried into execution

with as much vigour, as it had been planned with sagacity and judgment. The soldiery and people were successively gained by the eloquence with which the young king addressed them, who plainly evinced the vast importance of this quality in popular commotions and public affairs. Very few persons were imprisoned, and that only for a short time: nor have any of them experienced, in the smallest degree, any diminution of the royal favour, on account of their opposition. The senate took a new oath of allegiance to the prince, and tranquillity was restored throughout the kingdom. Hence we may perceive the great force of elocution, and the power which an orator has over the human mind.

Where'er he speaks, heav'n, how the list'ning throng
Dwell on the melting music of his tongue!
His arg'ments are th' emblems of his mien;
Mild, but not faint; and forcing, tho' serene:
And when the pow'r of eloquence he'd try,
Here light'nings strike you, there soft breezes sigh.

C H A P. VI. G R E A T R U S S I A.

SECTION I.

Extent, Situation, Boundaries, Origin of Names, Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, Climate, Soil, Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral, &c.

THE Russian empire is admitted, by geographers in general, to be of greater extent than all the rest of Europe, or than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power.

The immense dominions now under consideration, are situated between 47 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 23 and 65 degrees of east longitude, being about 1500 miles in length, and about 1100 in breadth.

Russia is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by the empire of China; on the south by Persia, the Caspian and Black Seas, and Turkey; and on the west by Sweden.

This empire is known by the appellations of Russia and Muscovy; the former of which is most probably derived from the ancient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi; and the latter from the river Mosco, upon which Moscow, the ancient metropolis, was built. It is, at present, distinguished by the name of Great Russia.

This vast country is, in general, flat and level, except towards the north, where lie the Zinnopias mountains, supposed to be the *Montes Riphaei* of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth.

The most considerable rivers of Russia are the Volga, or Volga, which traverses the far greater part of Russia, and, after a long winding course of upwards of 2000 English miles, fall into the Caspian Sea. In its course, which is mostly from east to west, it receives near 40 rivers (among which are the Occa and Kama,) some of them very large, waters the walls of near double that number of towns, fertilizes all the lands on each side, and supplies them with prodigious quantities of fish, particularly sturgeon, salmon, pike, &c. of a large size and exquisite taste. There grows likewise along its banks the finest truffles, and a kind of large asparagus, of a delicious taste and flavour; and the finest oaks that Muscovy produces, are to be found along its banks. The misfortune is, that a great track of that fruitful land along this noble river, is so exposed to the incursions of the Cuban Tartars, that it

lies altogether uncultivated, and almost unpeopled. To remedy this, the czar Peter I. caused an intrenchment to be made from that river, a little on this side the city of Zaritza, quite to the river Don, near the city of Twia, by which means he hath secured all that part of the country which lies within the trench; but the rest, reaching above 80 leagues in length and breadth, is still exposed to those free-booters, and lies neglected. The Volga, towards the latter end of its course, takes a winding towards the south, and falls into the Caspian Sea, about 36 miles below Astracan, in lat. 45 deg. 40 min. long. 50 deg. 30 min. east.

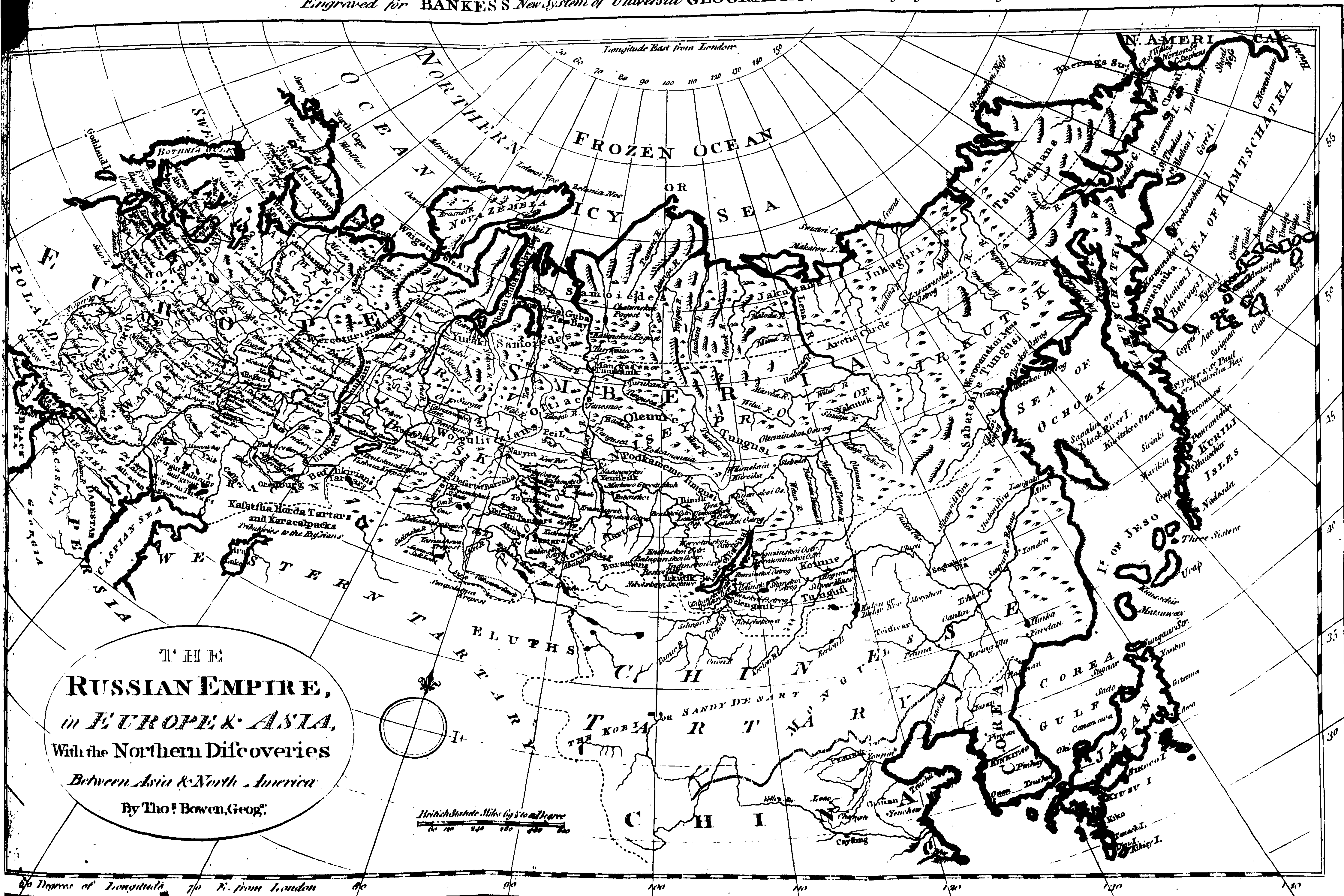
Thus in meanders to the distant main,
The liquid serpent draws his silver train.

The Don, or Tanais of the ancients, is the next considerable river in this country, and divides it, in its most eastern parts, from Asia. It hath its spring in the province of Rezan, on the north-east of the lake Jwanow-Osero; and, in its course towards the east, comes so near the Volga, that the late Czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal. But this design, grand and useful as it would have proved, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turning and windings, discharges itself into the Palus Maeotis at the famed fortress of Assof, or Azoph. The whole length of its course is very considerable.

The Dwina, or Dowina, hath no spring-head of its own, but is formed from those called Succana, and Juga, or Jugh. Its name signifies double, as it is composed of those two rivers; and its course bends northward, in which it receives the Vitfogda, and several other rivers; and, having passed through Archangel, empties itself at two mouths, parted by a small island, into the White Sea.

The Dnieper, or ancient Boristhenes, which is one of the largest rivers in Europe, after running a prodigious course, falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea. It has thirteen cataracts within a small distance.

The lakes of this country are numerous; but the following only deserve notice. The lake Ladog between the gulph of Finland and the lake of Oneg is computed to be above 40 leagues long, and above 35 in breadth, where widest. It extends, in length from 60 to 61 deg. 50 min. of lat. The czar Peter



not finding the south part of it so navigable as he wished, caused a canal to be dug, by which he hath opened a communication with Petersburg. This lake produces great quantities and variety of fish; such as salmon, sturgeon, and a peculiar kind of fish, called *dog*, of the size of a herring, but of a finer taste; from which the lake is supposed to have had its name.

That of Onega lies about 50 miles eastward of the lake of Ladoga. It is about 40 leagues in length, and 18 in breadth: though it has fresh water, seals are often seen in it.

The lake of Peipus, in Livonia, is nearly 24 leagues in length, and upwards of 12 in breadth. It abounds with fish, and runs into the gulph of Finland.

From the amazing extent of this vast country, it may naturally be concluded, that there is a proportionable diversity of climate and soil. In the southern parts, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. This being the case, the extremes, both of climate and soil, must be seen and felt in this extensive empire.

To enable the reader to form an idea of the rigour of the cold season, we cite the following relation of a late ingenious and learned writer, who resided in this country several years. "It is almost difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate (meaning that of England) to have any idea of a cold so great. It may, perhaps, help to give some notion of it to relate, that when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice; yet, by the way, the advantage of the beard, even in that state, to protect the glands of the throat, is worth observation; for the soldiers who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under their chin to supply their place. From this account it may be easily imagined, that the parts of the face which are exposed are very liable to be frozen; and it may seem strange, though a certain fact, that the party himself does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it first by somebody who meets him, and calls out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarkable, that the part which has once been frozen, is ever after most liable to be frozen again.

"In some severe winters I have seen sparrows, tho' a hardy bird, quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: and I have heard that the drivers, who sit on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. The seasons, however, are seldom so severe, and that severity lasts but a few days: though it is not unfrequent, in the course of a winter, that some poor wretches, getting drunk with spirituous liquors, fall down by the road side, and perish by the cold before any one finds them.

"When the thermometer has stood at 25 deg. below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, falls down perfectly dry, formed into ice. I have made an experiment nearly like this, by throwing the water out of a window, two pair of stairs high. A pint bottle of common water I have found frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. During the operation, I have observed the *spicula* flying towards the exterior part of the water, full an inch, or an inch and a half long, where they form the crystallization. The great length of these *spicula* is remarkable, and seems to be caused by the intenseness of the cold. A bottle of strong ale has been frozen in an hour and a half, but in this substance there is always about a tea-cupful in the middle unfrozen, which is as strong and inflammable as brandy, or spirits of wine. I never saw good brandy or rum freeze to solid ice, though I have seen ice very thin in both, when in a small flat phial. The phials I made use of

for the experiment, were the common bottles, in which there had been lavender water.

"It may not be foreign to these instances to mention an experiment made by prince Orloff, master of the ordnance to her imperial majesty, which I had from him, though I was not a witness of it myself. He filled a bomb-shell with water, and then stopped the hole very closely with a plug; and as soon as the congelation began, the contents of the shell swelling, issued out by the side of the plug like a small fountain. He then made a screw to fasten up the hole of the bomb-shell after it was filled with water, and in 20 minutes the frost burst the shell with some degree of violence, so that some of the pieces flew to the distance of four or five yards.

"Tho' the cold is thus intense for so great a part of the year, the small summer is very hot; and, indeed, about six weeks of it is usually intolerable."

The writer last quoted observes, that, to balance the long absence of the sun in the winter season, they enjoy here a large share of his influence in the summer, which causes vegetation to be exceedingly quick; otherwise the shortness of the season would not suffice for the necessary business of sowing the land, for the growth of the corn, and for gathering it in.

Some persons deem the light nights in summer an agreeable circumstance, and these are very remarkable even in the latitude of Petersburg, which is in 61 degrees. This arises not only from the sun's being so short a time under the horizon, but from the strong reflection of the atmosphere, which causes so great a brightness, one may see to read and write at midnight, unless it be cloudy, for full two months.

The soil of Russia is rather more various than the climate. The southern provinces produce wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, and herbs, with various kinds of fruit; and all these with a vegetation so uncommonly expeditious, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the surface of the ground. This is attributed to the snow, which not only enriches and mellows the land, but cherishes and shelters the product of it, and makes it take deeper root.

—When high Jove his sharp artill'ry forms,
And opes his cloudy magazine of storms,
In winter's bleak uncomfortable reign,
A snowy inundation hides the plain:
He stills the winds, and bids the skies to sleep,
Then pours the silent tempest thick and deep;
And, first, the mountain tops are cover'd o'er,
Then the green fields, and then the sandy shore;
Bent with the weight the nodding woods are seen,
And one bright waste hides all the works of men:
The circling seas alone, absorbing all,
Drink the dissolving fleeces as they fall.

The sowing time, in many parts, must follow the harvest immediately; because the summer not lasting above three months, there can be no sowing after the frost is begun. But in more moderate climes they do not sow till April or May, and then their reaping time comes in August, and sometimes in July. As for manure, they have no need of any, the snow supplying that in every respect. Besides grain and fruits of various sorts, the country produces plenty of rhubarb, flax, hemp good pasture for cattle, honey, wax, &c.

The astonishing quantity of mushrooms produced spontaneously in Russia, are a great blessing and relief to the poor; while, at the same time, they are deemed delicacies at the tables of the rich and luxurious. It has been known, that above a thousand waggon loads of mushrooms have been annually sold at Moscow.

Agriculture was but little understood in this country till the time of Peter the Great, who brought his subjects in some measure better acquainted with it. The principal articles in a Russian farm are wax and honey, which sometimes produce to the peasant a competency;

as he sells the wax, and some of the honey, and makes a domestic drink of the rest. This drink is a kind of metheglin, extremely strong, and very palatable. The Russian method of forming bee-hives is as follows: the peasant cuts down a tree, saws the trunk into many parts, hollows the pieces, then stops up the extremities, and bores small holes into the body for the admittance of the bees; then the bee-hive is made, and the honey secured from all the attacks of the bear, who is exceedingly fond of it, and tries a variety of experiments and stratagems, to make himself master of the sweet treasure.

The rye here serves not only for bread, but a strong spirituous liquor is extracted from it, which the Russians prefer to brandy.

The wild beasts in this country are much the same as those in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. such as rein-deer, foxes, martins, hares, bears, ermines, fables, and squirrels. In the southern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, small horses, goats, sheep, &c.

The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild-fowl, game, birds of prey, &c.

The different parts of this vast country are plentifully supplied with various kinds of fish, by means of the several seas contiguous to them, as well as innumerable lakes, rivers, rivulets, &c. These produce immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, and belugo, which latter is a large fish, of whose roe the best caviare is made.

The summer's heat hatches innumerable insects in the sands, morasses, forests, &c. and they are, indeed, very troublesome throughout the whole empire. Some are in common with those in the northern countries of Europe; and others are so imperfect as not to have received a name, or at least to have been assigned to any particular species; for, in the summer months, we may say with Ovid,

The fat manure with heav'nly fire is warm'd,
And crufted creatures as in worms are form'd;
There, when they turn the glebe, the peasants find
Some rude, and yet unfinish'd, in their kind;
Short of their limbs, a lame imperfect birth,
One half alive, and one of lifeless earth.

Russia abounds with very rich mines of silver, iron, and lead. The two former metals have been already described; but the latter not having been particularized, we shall here mention it.

Lead is of the least value of all metals, it being heavy, livid, and fouls the hand with blackish colour. It yields little or no sound, and melts quickly in the fire before it turns red. Pure lead is seldom found in the mines, but is extracted from ores of different kinds; for it is sometimes black, blue, yellow, or of an ash colour. It is full of shining minute particles; and sometimes again it is like a stone of a leaden shining colour, consisting of squares like dice, that lie in a white or reddish stone. The ore of lead almost always contains a small quantity of silver.

When flints, and the like, are mixed with an ash or black colour, or are only marked here and there with veins and spots of the same, it is a sign that they contain either iron or lead. The green lead ore is very rare; but when it is found, it is variegated with a yellowish green colour, and semi-transparent. It is likewise heavy, but not hard; and one hundred weight of it yields from 70 to 80 pounds of lead. There is also white and ash-coloured lead ore, but it is uncommon.

SECTION II.

Particular Description of the several Parts of the Russian Empire in Europe.

FOR the sake of order, we shall treat of the several parts of this empire under the following grand divisions, viz. Livonia and Ingria; Moscovy Proper, or Western Russia; Eastern Moscovy, or Russia; Russian Lapland and Nova Zembla.

L I V O N I A.

THAT part of Russia called Livonia, is bounded on the north by the gulph of Finland, on the south by the duchy of Courland and Lithuania, on the west by the gulph of Riga, and on the east by Ingria.

This province is admirably situated for commerce, having the sea on the north and west, the great lake Peipus on the east, and the river Dwina on the south. Three other internal lakes, and many small rivers, likewise greatly contribute to the advantage of this province, by facilitating the inland navigation. Livonia, from north to south, is 150 miles in length; and from east to west, where broadest, about 110 miles.

Livonia, though extremely marshy in some places, is, in general, very beautiful, plentifully producing honey, corn, cattle, pasture grounds, &c.

The Livonians, about the twelfth century, were involved in Pagan superstitions; and, with respect to their manners, were ferocious and savage to a great degree. They were brought to embrace Christianity by their neighbours the Germans.

This fine country hath alternately been ravaged by the Germans, Russians, Poles, and Swedes. In 1660, by the treaty of Oliva, it was entirely ceded to the Swedes, who kept possession of it till the beginning of the present century, when, during the wars of Charles XII. the Russians subdued the whole duchy of Livonia, as well as Ingria; and they were afterwards confirmed to Russia by the treaty of Nyfadt.

The native peasants of Livonia are of strong constitutions, and fit to undergo hardships; but even at this time retain great part of their ferocity. As some of their ceremonies, superstitions, and peculiarities, are remarkable, we shall relate them.

When a country fellow marries a girl out of another village, he goes on horseback to fetch her, sets her behind him, and makes her embrace him with the right hand. He hath in his hand a stick cleft at the top, where he puts a piece of brass money, which he gives to him who opens the wicket through which he is to pass. Before him rides a man that plays upon the bagpipe, as also two of his friends, who, having naked swords in their hands, give two strokes across the door of the house where the marriage is to be consummated, and then they thrust the point of one of the swords into a beam over the bridegroom's head, which is done to prevent charms, which, they say, are common in that country. It is to the same end that the bride scatters little pieces of cloth, or red serge, by the way, especially where cross-ways meet, near crosses, and upon the graves of little children, dead without baptism, whom they bury in the high-ways. She hath a veil over her face while she is at the table, which is not long; for as soon almost as the guests are set down, the married couple rise and retire. About two hours after they get up, and are brought to sit down at the table. Having drank and danced till such time as they are able to stand no longer, they lay down on the floor, and sleep all together like so many swine.

They believe there is another life after this, but their imaginations of it are very vague. A Livonian woman, being present at her husband's burial, puts a needle and thread into the grave, giving this reason for it, that her husband being to meet, in the other world, with persons of rank, she was ashamed he should be seen with his clothes rent.

They are, in general, insatuated with notions of sorcery, which lead them to the belief and practice of the greatest absurdities.

As they are stubborn in their superstitions, so are they no less exact in the observation of their customs; applicable to which we have a very pleasant story concerning an old country fellow. Being condemned, for faults enormous enough, to cause sentence to be pronounced for him lie along upon the ground to receive his punishment, and a lady of the highest rank pitying

pitying his decrepid age, having so far interceded for him, as that his corporal punishment should be changed into a pecuniary mulct of about fifteen or sixteen-pence, he thanked her for her kindness, and said, that for his part, being an old man, he would not introduce any novelty, nor suffer the customs of the country to be altered, but was ready to receive the chastisement which his predecessors had not thought much to undergo, put off his clothes, laid himself upon the ground, and received the blows according to his condemnation.

The people of Livonia are not permitted to make any purchase, and to prevent their so doing, they have only so much ground to manage as will afford them a subsistence. Yet they will venture to cut down wood in some places of the forests; and having prepared the ground, sow wheat in it, which they hide in pits to be secretly sold. When they are taken in this, or any other fault, they make them strip themselves down to the hips, and to lie down upon the ground; or they are tied to a post, while one of their comrades beats them with a switch, or holly wand, till the blood runs on all sides; especially when then the master says, "*Selcke rack maha pexema*," "Beat him till the skin falls from the flesh."

Nor are they suffered to have any money; for as soon as it is known they have any, their superiors take it from them; which cruelty often drives these people into despair, of which there happened a sad example. A peasant, pressed by his officer, being deprived of the means whereby he should maintain his family, strangled his wife and children. The officer coming the next day to the house, thinking to receive the money, struck his head against the man's feet that was hanging, and so perceived the miserable execution of which he was the cause.

Livonia is divided into two parts, viz. Estonia and Letten.

ESTONIA is the most northern part of the province of Livonia. The chief cities and towns of which are

Revel, the capital, situated in part on a plain, and in part on the declivity of a mountain, at the top of which there is a strong castle. Waldemar, the second king of Denmark, founded this city, but sold it, together with Narva and Westenberg, to the grand master of the Teutonic order. Revel was one of the places originally admitted into the confederacy of the Hans Towns, and was a considerable commercial place till 1550, when the Russians removed the commerce of Revel to Narva, after having subdued the latter. But in 1711, when the Russians conquered the former, they again turned its trade into the old channel; and since that period the place hath, in some degree, increased in opulence and importance. The Danish peasants, who formerly settled here, are still distinguishable from the original inhabitants by their habits, customs, manners, &c.

Narva is situated on the river Nerva, which divides Livonia from Ingria. It was originally built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark; taken by John Basilowitz, czar of Moscow or Russia; retaken by the Swedes; and finally reduced by Peter the Great, in the year 1700.

A late English traveller gives the following curious account of the Livonian dress: "I had the pleasure (says he) to dine in company with four ladies yesterday, who were habited in the Livonian dress. Nothing could more aptly realize that barbarous splendor which has been so frequently depicted, but is now so rarely to be seen, in many parts of Europe. It was expensive, and might have been worn by persons of the first eminence, without degradation of their rank. Their heads were covered with a complete bonnet of pearls, which were not worth less than 2000 rubles, (450l. sterling, a ruble being 4s. 6d.) and round their necks were several strings of the same. A part of their necks was left exposed, but the lower part was concealed by a vest of red silk, which sat close to the breast, and was bordered with a gold lace of a vast breadth, which

descended to the feet. Their arms had no other covering than the sleeves of their shifts; and when they walked out they threw over their heads and shoulders a piece of silk, resembling a Highland plaid, which was a sort of substitute for our capuchin."

Among other ridiculous superstitions, the people of this part of Livonia have a custom of observing the eve of Whit-Sunday as a festival, sacred to the memory of the dead. On this occasion the women assemble in the church-yard, spread clean napkins on the graves and tomb-stones, and cover them with painted eggs, fish dressed various ways, cakes, custards, &c. The priests then prays over, and perfumes them with frankincense; the clerk follows, and gathers up the offerings for the use of the church; and the women, during the whole ceremony, make the most dismal lamentations.

The river Nerva, which flows from the lake Peibus, and empties itself into the gulph of Finland, is exceedingly rapid: and near two miles from the city there is an impetuous cataract, which rushes violently down a precipice with the most tremendous noise, and dashes so furiously against the rocks, that a mist or vapour continually ascends from its foam, which, when the morning sun obliquely shines upon it, produces a rainbow.

The intercepted beams, mix'd with the shade
Of temper'd æther, and refracted light,
Paints the fair rainbow, charming to the sight.

Parnaw, or Perna, which became subject to the Swedes in 1617, after it had been taken and retaken many times in the last century, in 1710 surrendered to the Russians. There is an university removed thither from Derpt, in the year 1685, but it is not much frequented.

Derpt, or, as the inhabitants call it, Derpat, and by the Muscovites, Junogorod, is a large and ancient city on the river Eimbeck, between the lakes Peibus and Wortzi, which have a communication together by that river. It was formerly the see of a bishop, and adorned with an university, which has been since removed to Parnaw.

There are several other small towns in the district of Estonia, but so inconsiderable, as not to deserve mention even in name.

LETTEN. The principal cities and towns in this part of the province of Livonia are as follow:

Riga is the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia. It is the most considerable place for trade, next to Petersburg, in the Russian dominions. It stands very advantageously for commerce, near the mouth of the river Dwina, which, with its branches, extending a great way into Poland and Russia, bring immense quantities of commodities, which are exported from this city. Among these the principal are hemp, flax, timber for masts and other purposes, pitch, tar, and pot ashes. All these commodities are produced in the provinces, or near them, through which those rivers run; and some of them, by means of short land carriage, from one river to another, much further; even from the Ukraine and the Polish provinces that border upon Turkey. Charles IX. king of Sweden, besieged Riga unsuccessfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his son and successor, Gustavus Adolphus, was more fortunate, and took it in 1620. Riga is well fortified, having strong walls, bulwarks, a very large trench on the land side, and a strong castle on the river, where the governor-general of Livonia resides. There is also a fort opposite the town, on the other side of the river, which is called fort Kobber, or Kobrums. The harbour is securely guarded by the Dunamond Fort, or, as it is called, the Dunamunder-Schans, seated about six miles below the city, near the mouth of the river Dwina, as its name declares, and is a fortress of great importance, commanding the passage of Riga; so that, without leave from the governor, no ship can sail thither.

The

The inhabitants of Riga are a frank kind of people, and very polite to strangers. They live by their trade; and have, by their policy, kept up hitherto a share of liberty. Their city is governed by four magistrates; and they have also a great number of counsellors, and a syndic. Their magistrates have a salary annexed to their office; and they are not permitted to trade during their magistracy, which, though elective, may continue as long as they live, provided they please their council. They have great power in the city; but if any think they have not justice done them, they appeal to St. Petersburg, and frequently get the magistrates sentence reversed. The women are handsome, rather bulky, but of fine features. The unmarried women are kept in good order; but, it is said, that, after marriage, they do not pay a great regard to chastity. The ladies of quality are very vain, but at the same time polite to those who pay them respect. Merchants wives, and other idle women, are to be seen at the doors of their houses almost through the whole day, for no other reason than to see the gentlemen pass by, and receive their compliments. To such a length is this absurd custom arrived, that the men scarcely can be covered one moment, and therefore walk with their hats under their arms.

The bridge over the Dwina is one of the most surprising in Europe, being 900 paces in length. It consists of transverse beams of timber joined together, and rises or falls with the tide. It is always taken to pieces before the frost sets in, which happens in November, and put up as soon as the ice is gone. The inhabitants of the city of Riga itself are about 8000 in number, and the suburbs contain about as many more. Three miles below the town, on the southern side, is the place where Charles XII. routed the Saxons, as he had first done the Russians before Narva. A high bank of sand is now collected, and possesses the ground where the action happened, under which are still frequently found skulls and human bones.

Kokenhausen, or Kokenhuys, stood on the river Dwina, 90 miles above Riga to the east. It was strong by its situation on a hill, rather than by its fortifications, but was defended by a good citadel. It was formerly the residence of the archbishop of Riga. The Russians blew it up in 1701.

The other towns, in the district of Letten, are Nyenhausen, Marienburg, Warbeck, Sewold, and Wolmer. The three former are fortified; the three latter are wholly insignificant.

I N G R I A.

THIS part of Russia is 130 miles long, 70 broad, and abounds in cattle. In the winter here are a great number of elks, which, in the summer, swim in the river Nieva, and make excursions into Carelia.

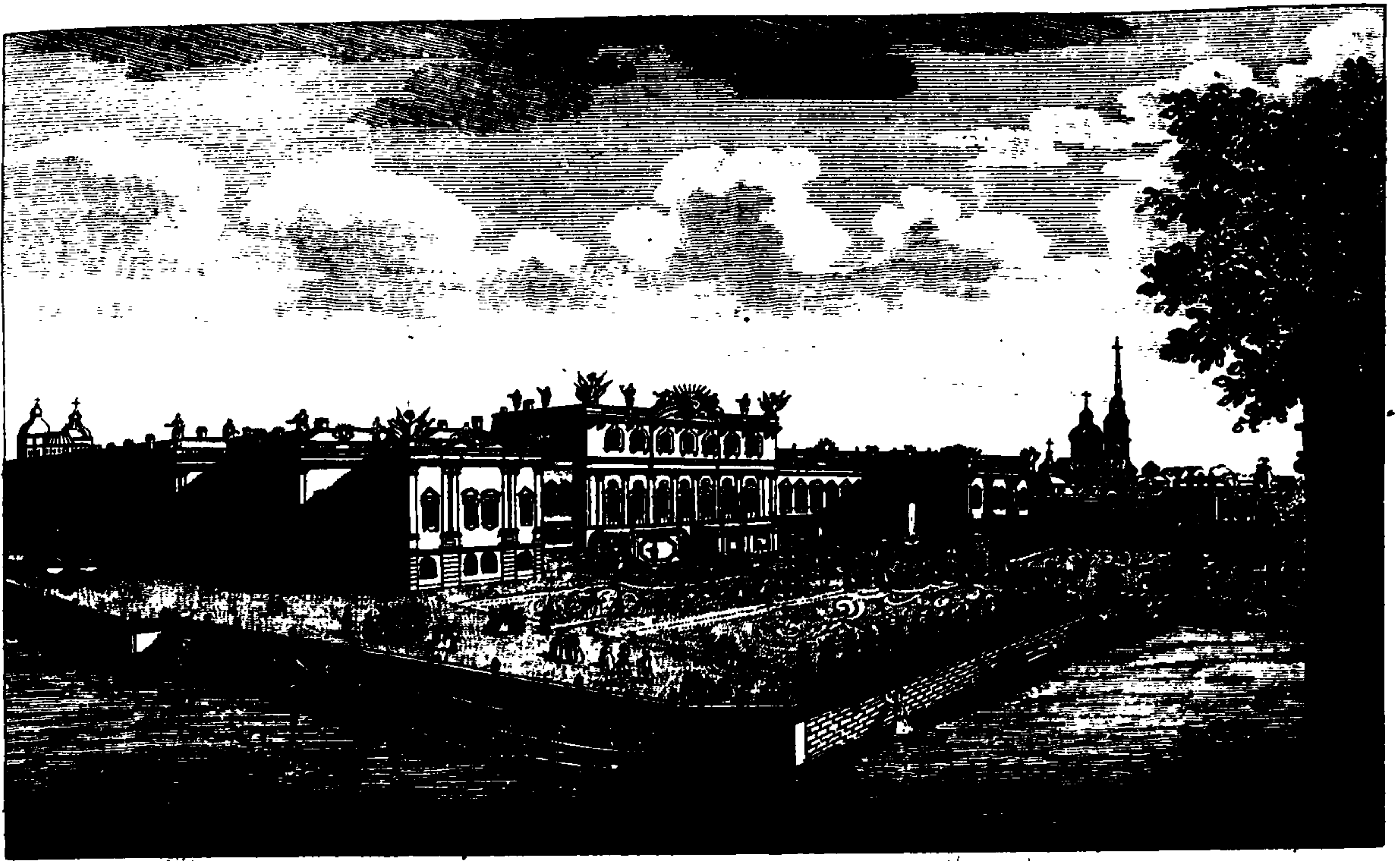
The czar, Peter the Great, being desirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulph of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himself master of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century. To render it an European maritime power, he determined on one of the most stupendous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human resolution, the building the city of Petersburg, which he designed to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Russian empire, the center of trade, and the principal seat of the imperial residence. It is situated between Ingria and Finland, in a fenny island, surrounded by the river Nieva, in 60 deg. north lat. and 31 deg. 34 min. east long.

A late traveller, who calls this city a creation of the present century, says further of it, "I am struck with a pleasing astonishment while I wander among havens, streets, and public buildings, which have risen, as by enchantment, within the memory of men still alive; and have converted the marshy islands of the Nieva into one of the most magnificent cities on the earth. The ima-

gination, aided by so many visible objects, rises to the wondrous founder, and beholds, in idea, the titular genius of Peter yet hovering over the child of his own production, and viewing, with a parent's fondness, its rising palaces and temples. The names on which ancient story dwells with so much fondness, sink on a comparison with this immortal man; and the fabulous legislators of Greece and Egypt never presumed to attempt the mighty transformation which the Czar completed. The followers of Cadmus, of Theseus, and of Romulus, were animated with the same ardor as their leader; but the Muscovites, (Russians,) wrapt in the most profound barbarism, secluded by their illiberal prejudices from an intercourse with European nations, and equally the slaves of superstition and long prescription, were forcibly torn from this night of ignorance, and compelled to accept of refinement and civilization.

The island on which this fine city has been so wonderfully raised, was nothing but a heap of mud in the short summer of these climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land but by passing over wild forests and deep morasses, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, till it was, in 1703, inhabited by above 300,000 Russian, Tartar, Cossack, &c. peasants, whom the Czar called together from all corners of his vast empire, some near 1200 miles; and these made a beginning of this work. He was obliged to break through forests, open ways, dry up moors, and raise banks, before he could lay the foundation. The whole was a force upon nature. At first the workmen had neither sufficient provisions, or even pickaxes, spades, wheelbarrows, planks, or huts to shelter in; yet the work went on so expeditiously, that, in five months, the fortress was raised; though earth thereabouts was so scarce, that the greatest part of the labourers carried it in the skirts of their cloaths, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed full 100,000 perished at the place; for the country had been desolated by war, and supplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds. The Czar himself drew the main plan. While the fortress was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many of the nobility, merchants, and tradesmen, to go and live there, and trade in such commodities as they were ordered. Provisions being scarce, and conveniences wanting, the place, at first, was not at all agreeable to persons of distinction, who had in Moscow large buildings, and seats in the country, with fish-ponds, gardens, and other rural elegancies. However, he little regarded the complaints of those who only considered their own ease. The boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them; and merchants and shopkeepers soon found their account in settling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, and Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, continued here. Artificers, mechanics, and seamen, were invited hither, to encourage shipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the Czar, were hired by the boyars; and also built for themselves, and settled; each man being allowed to pitch on the spot he liked. In one year 30,000 houses were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtless are very much increased since. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the *slabodas*, or suburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and set up elsewhere. To build this town, that of Nienschans (a strong fort on the Nieva, not far from Noteburg) was demolished for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither. As he intended to remove the trade of Archangel to Petersburg, in 1713 he made 1000 families come from Moscow, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that should settle there; and ordered that all goods usually sent to Archangel, to be sold, &c. to strangers, should be sent hither, and the duties to be in every respect the same. But the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till some years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all houses should be built of brick, tiled. The

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Summer Palace of the Empress of Russia at Petersburg.



Winter Palace of the Empress of Russia at Petersburg.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagonal, with six bastions parallel to each other, except the two middlemost, one of which, opposite to Carelia, has two orillons or blinds; that over-against the river none; each of the four others one. They were all, at first, but earth and turf; but, in 1710, the Czar resolved to have them all lined with strong walls. Those on Carelia side were finished in his life-time; and the work has been carried on and compleated by his successors. The wall is 30 feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and brass guns. On the flanks, which are pretty short, are two rows of cazamattes, one above the other, arched over, and covered with beams and turf, bomb-proof. The curtain on the right of this citadel's gates has one of the finest royal dispensaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelane vessels from China and Japan, which it contains. This citadel has two gates; one adorned with statues, particularly St. Peter with his two emblematic keys, and on its inside the black eagle of Russia, with the globe and the sceptre in its two talons; and below is the figure of the Russian St. Nicholas. Before that gate is a ravelin, from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. In this place gallies and small vessels are sheltered from bad weather.

The academy established by Peter the Great, has a multiplicity of professors in most sciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal salaries. The building is a superb pile, containing two stories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an observatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curiosities. "In one of the galleries, (says a curious observer,) in a case, is the skin of a Frenchman tanned and stuffed. This has been the tallest man I ever saw. In another case is his skeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's skin, also dressed. The leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, stands the skin of an English chesnut horse, stuffed, saddled, and bridled, and beside it the skeleton. Peter the Great used to ride this horse. Here I saw the head of the unfortunate Miss Hamilton, a Swedish lady, who lost it for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Russia. This lady was maid of honour to the empress Catherine. It is said Peter went and saw her executed. He wept much, but could not prevail upon himself to pardon her. He caused her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almost compleat. The face is the beautifulest my eyes ever beheld. The *duramater*, and brain, are all preserved in their natural situation. This is kept in spirits in a large crystal vessel."

Besides the above here are deposited great quantities of earths, fossils, stones, ores, natural metals, minerals, shells, mosses, corals, &c. In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax-work, as large as the life. He sits in an elbow chair cross-legged, dressed in a blue suit of cloaths, white stockings, and has a hanger by his side. He has short black hair, his head covered; and the figure is surrounded by mathematical, philosophical, and mechanical instruments.

Peter the Great also formed regulations for the management of this seminary. These referred to the professors, the students, the respective sciences, the succession to offices, and other particulars conducive to the interest of the institution in general.

Petersburg is amazingly increased in size within these fifty years. At the death of Peter the Great, it did not contain 80,000 inhabitants; and now the Russians assert that there are 500,000; but this is deemed an exaggeration. It covers a very great extent of land and water. The streets are some of them very broad, long, and with canals in the middle of them; and others are planted in the Dutch fashion. The houses are immensely large. The palaces of the nobility exceed in size those of most cities. That of the Em-

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press is an amazing structure. But these are rather great than beautiful. The size is all that strikes; and the buildings are stuck so thick with ornaments, that there is hardly any such thing as judging of their proportions. The Italian architecture is mixed with the Dutch, and the whole forms very inelegant piles, in which true taste is totally sacrificed to a profusion of ornament. But if the eye does not scrutinize into the separate parts of the buildings, but takes only the streets at large, the city may be fairly pronounced a very fine one.

Among the public buildings there are many extremely worthy the attention of a traveller, particularly the dock yards, the naval magazines, the arsenal, foundery, admiralty, &c. without insisting on the imperial palace, the cathedral, or many churches. In the docks they continually employ a great number of carpenters. They build here all sorts of vessels, from ships of 120 guns down to boats; and the number on the stocks at a time is considerable. After the death of Peter the Great the marine was neglected, insomuch, that the Empress's naval strength was not computed to be a fifth part of what that great monarch possessed; and this was owing to a want of trade, which can alone make seamen; unless when in the hands of such a man as Peter, who created every thing. But the present Empress, who has thrown that spirit of that great monarch into all the departments of the state, has revived it wonderfully; so that, at present, the Russians have a formidable navy.

There is scarcely any thing at Petersburg more deserving notice than the foundery. The iron is brought from Kexholm by water; and the number of cannon and mortars that are cast here is very great; also cannon balls, and all sorts of military implements in which iron is used; which are made here at as small an expence as in Sweden, or any other part of the world. The arsenal is always well stored with them; and there are vast quantities made on a private account for exportation, forming a very considerable branch of commerce.

The grand market-place is on the southernmost part of the city, with many warehouses, to deposit all kinds of commodities and merchandize, both domestic and foreign, for sale. It is a large square, with four entries, and a range of shops on each side, both within and without, with covered galleries, to secure those who frequent it from the rain.

Woollen and linen manufactories were set up here, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as we may observe by the linen of late imported from thence. Here is particularly a workhouse, where an old Dutch woman has 80 young nymphs under her care, who are taught, with a whip, how to handle the spinning-wheel; and several regulations are made for improving the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper-mills, and powder-mills, have also been erected, with laboratories for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for preparing salt-petre and brimstone. Rope-yards, like those in England and Holland, for making of cables and tackling for the navy, are also set up here. A printing house is established, and news-papers are now as regularly printed as in other countries of Europe. Several useful books have been translated out of the High-Dutch, and printed; the government encouraging their subjects to enquire into the state of the world abroad, instead of keeping them in ignorance, according to their ancient maxims. As to their silk and woollen manufactures, they have not been able hitherto to bring them to any degree of perfection.

At a little distance from Petersburg is a noble seminary for educating females only, founded by the late empress Elizabeth. The building is capacious and grand. Children of distinction are kept separate from those of an inferior rank; and the whole contains between 700 and 800 females.

Near the Nieva is a small palace, built by the present Empress, and called *The Hermitage*. When her majesty